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# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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## Editor's Page

### A NEW CHALLENGE TO THE NATIONAL COUNCIL

OCTOBER, 1947, might seem a good time for the National Council for the Social Studies to sit back and feel satisfied. Its publication program is in good condition—the latest Yearbook is perhaps as fine a contribution to education as any yearbook has ever made; its magazine has grown, under the distinguished editorship of Erling M. Hunt, to a position of leadership in the profession; William H. Hartley, editor of the forthcoming Yearbook, announces that all copy is in the hands of the printer. In addition, Merrill F. Hartshorn has a well-established and smooth-running routine in the Washington office, and membership is the highest in our history.

Reasoned judgment, however, will show us that this is the very time when we should be thinking about growth. Organizations must grow stronger or else lose what they have already gained. Numerous challenges face the profession; to resolve them requires increased membership and revenue. There is no good reason why our membership should not reach the 10,000 mark before the end of 1948.

### N.E.A. SURVEY

WITHIN a few weeks, if not before this issue reaches you, the National Education Association will make public the results of a nation-wide survey sponsored by the Department of Classroom Teachers. Its purpose was to determine the attitude of teachers toward their preparation.

The results of this survey will indicate the need for drastic improvement in teacher training, and the N.E.A. will recommend a five-point program for accomplishing this. The new program applies directly to teacher-training institutions, but the report recognizes that these institutions alone cannot bring about the desired improvement. The report calls upon the professional teacher organizations to assume a greater share of responsibility in the preparation of teachers. As one of these organizations, the National Council must accept the new responsibility.

### RESPONSIBILITY AND GROWTH

RESPONSIBILITY and growth are, in this case, interrelated. In order to perform the work that the N.E.A. is expecting of it, the National Council must have a larger membership and revenue; the acceptance of this responsibility can, over a period of time, provide much of the needed growth.

This report requests that professional organizations provide student memberships for prospective teachers who are in the last two years of training.

This is something that the members and officers of the National Council should be thinking about between now and the November meeting in St. Louis. It represents both a challenge and an opportunity. It requires the formulation of definite plans for student membership and of a definite program for capitalizing upon the potential strength thus contacted.

A wise program for the establishment of student memberships must provide for the cost, the duration, and the privileges of such membership. It must provide for a nation-wide program of recruitment and for effective contacts with every teacher training institution in the nation. It must prepare for an increased budget, recognizing the fact that such memberships may not be self-supporting.

A long-time program for capitalizing upon this potential strength must plan for added appeal to this in-training group in both *Social Education* and the bulletins and yearbooks of the National Council; it must provide for effective liaison between the Washington office and teacher-training institutions; and it must provide for an efficient follow-up with all former student members during their first year or two of teaching service. The key point here would seem to be the job of convincing one or more instructors in every training institution that student memberships would make for more effective student training as well as for better on-the-job performance during the following years.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

# Education and Democracy

Charles H. Wesley

EDUCATION and democracy have been parallel forces in American life; it has become a truism that our schools exist for the purpose of educating youth for participation in a democratic society. We have long taken this relationship for granted, however, without examining its implications for administrative and instructional policies. We are becoming increasingly aware that education cannot contribute effectively to democracy until democracy has been established in education. If we wish our students and graduates to be proponents of democracy, then we must have democracy on our campuses, in our classrooms, laboratories, libraries, gymnasiums, and athletic fields. By whom is such democracy to be established?

Democracy, in its simplest terms, means that there is a government by the people with sovereignty residing in the people. In the United States a representative democracy operates, as elsewhere, in our public-school systems. Board members or trustees represent the people; elected or appointed executives represent both the boards and the people. Though it is their duty as well as that of the teachers to develop the democratic way of life, the contrary result may occur. Frank E. Baker, writing in the *American Teacher* on "Extending Democracy to School Administration," states:

The existing administration of education in democratic America is autocratic from top to bottom, controlled by an employer-minded board, administered by an employer-minded superintendent and taught by teachers who rule their worlds as autocratically as czars.

To the extent that Baker is right, the election by the people of representatives on boards of control, seemingly an evidence of democracy, has not served democracy. Nor has it even guaranteed efficiency. The Harvard Report on *General Education in a Free Society* comments:

This penetrating exploration of the urgent need for greater democracy in education was presented at a meeting of the Ohio College Association and allied societies at Columbus last spring. The author is president of Wilberforce University.

But there is a serious question whether appointive school boards, membership on which is given after scrutiny and for a term of years to demonstrably qualified persons, are not more informed, more independent and more responsible than most of the present elective boards.

Clearly the political basis of public education needs reconsideration.

DEMOCRACY in either politics or education is, however, more than a form of government or a piece of machinery at work. It is a way of life which will lead to self-realization and respect for every person. It is only through education that this meaning of democracy can be understood and that an awareness can be created both of social responsibility and of programs for social action designed to increase the security and general welfare of all the people. Such education requires understanding of social change and social problems.

A mechanized civilization and a highly complex industrial society have given us a high standard of living and made possible greater educational opportunity extending from kindergarten and nursery school to the adult school and the university. The nineteenth century in America, during which the economic base for our educational system was laid, was the era of the self-made man, the age of political and economic promise for individuals. Belief in the New World as a land of democratic opportunity for the individual attracted newcomers from forty-seven old-world countries.

But the twentieth century has witnessed rapid changes in this concept. We had created a machine society which could either make us or break us as individuals. Divisions appeared between the few who were owners and the many who were workers. Labor and Capital squared off for the contest. Unemployment cycles developed. The growth of urban life brought great perplexity into the social scene. The employment of all family members capable of working changed family life. Living quarters grew smaller and the older concept of the home had to change. Jobs became fewer and competition for them became keener. Recreation facilities did not ex-



pand in accordance with social needs. The schools were closed in the afternoon and, with both parents at work, youths twiddled their thumbs, idled at the corner-store, played the juke box in the restaurant or the game-box at the drug store, and loitered still longer in the pool room. There was satisfactory progress for many, but in other parts of our land there was maladjustment, dissatisfaction, economic insecurity, and frustration.

The absence of the sense of sharing and belonging affected many of our people, including in a special way the minority groups. Frustrations, varying in degree, affected Jews, Negroes, Orientals, Mexicans, Indians, and peoples from southern and eastern European countries and the Near East. Disadvantaged minority religious groups developed feelings of suspicion and discontent. Bad housing, ghetto life, segregation and exclusion, lack of adequate medical care, and unfair employment practices can affect democracy, for doubts must arise in the minds of the victims of these weaknesses of the American scene, not only of the sincerity of the democratic preachments of the majority groups but in addition of a democracy which is indifferent to such practices. The economic and social problems, of which these weaknesses of democracy are parts, are challenges to education, as, of course, are any deliberate efforts to set Christians against Jews, Protestants against Catholics, Negroes against whites, South against North, or city against country. When we realize that education, as at present constituted, has helped to maintain the *status quo* of our human relations rather than to challenge us to build a new society, we realize again that education must first experience changes before it can effectively extend democracy.

#### ILLITERACY AND INEQUALITY

AS a matter of fact, education has not only failed to adjust itself to the older demands of an earlier democracy, but also to the newer demands of a changing democratic society. World War II revealed our weaknesses even on the lower educational levels. Selective Service began by rejecting illiterates and persons with less than a fourth-grade education. The Second Report of the Director of Selective Service showed, as early as 1942, that of registrants 18 to 38 years of age an estimated number of 744,000 registrants had less than five years of schooling, and yet were physically fit for military service. Lieutenant Colonel Robert H. Owens

reported later that 1,704,000 men in World War II had less than the minimum of a fourth-grade education. This was about 13 per cent of the total number of men in the armed services. When we add to this number the ten million adult Americans who cannot read or write, we have an alarming picture of the one-sided development of the most prosperous nation in the world.

The National Commission for Defense of Democracy through Education reported that three-fourths of our American citizens twenty-five years and over have not completed high school, and three-fifths have not completed even one year of high school. What can we expect, then, in the way of democratic self-government here in the United States? And abroad—can we continue to remain first among the nations just because we have more railroad mileage, more radios, telephones, gadgets, factories, dollars, cents, homes, clothing, food, and automobiles than the rest of the world? Thomas Jefferson wrote in the early days of our democracy a truth which still lives, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be."

While we are one nation, we are also a collection of states, and within these there are great inequalities in educational opportunities. Illiteracy constitutes a real problem in some states, due partly to lack of belief in the necessity of education for all, as well as to inability to support it in any adequate manner. As a rule the states with the lowest educational requirements have the highest rates of homicide and crime, and the states with the higher standards of education have the higher cultural standards and economic attainments. The seventeen Southern states and the District of Columbia, in which the separation of white and Negro pupils is compulsory by law, maintain school programs with widening disparities and inequalities between them. Inequality of opportunity is a mockery of democracy in these areas, although some states, notably North Carolina, are leveling these inequalities so far as the burden of the support of a dual system can permit.

The fact which we overlook in this inequitable situation lies in the high degree of mobility of our total population, for approximately one of every four persons in the United States is now living in some other state than that of birth. Accordingly the people of all the states are affected by the weaknesses of some of the states. Plans to make these conditions more equal by federal aid to the states are now before Congress.



## STATUS AND FREEDOM OF TEACHERS

THE problem of teachers and of teachers' salaries is closely associated with this educational problem of democracy in education. *The New York Times School Survey* of February, 1947, revealed that 60,000 teachers in the United States have only a high school education or less, and that 125,000 teachers, or one of every seven in the teaching profession, are serving with substandard or emergency certificates.

It has been found that 350,000 teachers have left the public schools since 1940 and that fewer students are entering teaching than in the past. With teachers receiving an average of \$37 a week and with two hundred thousand receiving less than \$25 a week, what else can be expected? Fourteen major strikes for higher salaries took place between September, 1946, and April, 1947, and more may be expected unless steps are taken to prevent them. Democracy cannot long survive illiteracy, teacher shortages, teacher turnovers, and low teaching morale in its elementary and secondary education, for such discontent can undermine the present American political system.

Great as is the need for material support and an adequately supported teaching personnel, the process of reconstruction in education and democracy must penetrate even more deeply. It must attack the control of democratic education and terminate the power of a single authority, whether of Church, State, or other agency, to control and to shape the educational process.

The gulf between administration and teacher, between teacher and student, and between teacher and parents must be closed. In such situations the control of the school must be shared through greater action by the people who are the source of authority, the government which establishes the framework within which the school operates, and the administrator and the teacher who are the active participants in the educational undertaking.

Dictation through legislation of what to teach, and rigid requirements about how to teach, as valuable as these aids may have been in raising some very low standards, have also helped to make a strait-jacket of teaching which leaves little room for the teacher's vision, imagination, initiative, and the quality of mind and spirit so greatly needed in a democracy.

## HIGHER EDUCATION

HIGHER education has felt the impact of demand for democratic opportunity, but

it has been democratized in only an imperfect way. There is only a partial equality of opportunity, for such barriers exist as selective admission, higher tuition charges, increased entrance standards, and systems of priorities and quotas, some of which are based on racial and religious grounds. The quotas operate either legally and openly or by implied understandings. One example may suffice.

In the twenty-five years between 1920 and 1945, only fifty Negro physicians have been graduated from the five New York City medical schools. Of 5,000 annual medical graduates in the United States, only 130 were Negroes of whom all except ten are from the two Negro medical schools, Howard University at Washington and Meharry Medical College at Nashville. Only about 7 per cent of the Jewish applicants are admitted to these New York medical schools. There are also minority quotas and exclusions in graduate and professional schools in other states. These limitations deny the democracy which their makers are seeking to create and maintain. As long as such attitudes prevail on the part of administrators our democratic education will be in vain and its hypocrisy all too apparent.

With the large numbers who are coming to the colleges today, however, we face an opportunity to serve a larger number of students of many types, and in this respect, we are becoming more democratic. The four-year backlog developed by the war, the G.I. Bill and higher income levels have created a rising demand for college education. The decade 1920-1930 saw college enrollment almost doubled. Another 50 per cent was added in the period 1930-1940. In February, 1947, the United States Office of Education, from a sampling of institutions, estimated that there were over two million students in the colleges, about one-half of them veterans. It is generally agreed by college authorities that these pressures upon the colleges may continue, although there is evidence that the peak of the pressure of veteran enrollment is being reached. There will be greater strains and developing pressure on graduate and professional schools and the expanding junior colleges.

## CURRICULUM

A COMPARISON of college catalogs will reveal not only courses in Democracy and Problems of Democracy but the fact that influences contrary to democracy have also had their sway in other courses. The nationalist and separatist point of view has been dominant in

many fields and the emphasis is placed upon Western culture, to the neglect of other cultures. Literature is approached from the nationalist point of view. There are such courses as Italian literature of the fifteenth century, French literature of the Renaissance, American literature of the nineteenth century.

The study of history follows the same pattern. The most important course in college history has been the history of Western Europe, or the history of Western civilization. We seem to be too willing to overlook the fact that there are civilizations and cultures, far older than that of Europe and more extensive in their relations to peoples. Geography is taught in terms of facts and descriptions of the space areas of the earth but with neglect of the peoples who inhabit them and of their cultures and civilizations.

Human relations are more important in a democratic society than land, sea, or sky. The facts about race and the fallacies in Racism as now laid bare by science constitute a valuable field for instruction. The teaching of facts about race will not solve race problems but it will develop attitudes of tolerance where hitherto there were emotional reactions in distintegrated personalities based upon lack of knowledge. Is there anything more tragic in human relations than to see the college graduate refuse association with another college graduate who happens to be of a different religious faith or a different national origin or color? There is something wrong with an education which leads to such results. Courses of study and school motivations have too often served to divide the world and its peoples, and we have lacked a kind of common human denominator. We shall not have one world until the schools and colleges get busy at the job, both within and without. The schools of Springfield, Massachusetts, New York City, Chicago, and some cities in this state have begun an inter-cultural, inter-group program of education. The colleges are undertaking such programs and many are planning experimentation with educational projects in democracy.

#### APPLIED DEMOCRACY

**B**UT can we have more democracy in education? Can education become democratic in fact? Answers to these questions are being given in various school systems, as executives see the

disparity between their democratic faith and their democratic practice. Teacher participation and student activity in government and creation of teachers' councils composed of elected teachers have gradually become principles of school operation, though there are still educators and others who believe that progress must be achieved through autocratic methods, democratic administration means that the laymen on boards, executives, administration officials, pastors, and teachers, cooperatively, must have responsibility for the determination of social policy. Good educational practice requires the maximum participation of all in the enterprise. It means freedom from political control and authoritarianism either by the dogmatists, the metaphysicians, or the selectors of the one hundred best books.

At the college level further evidence of the advance of democracy in education is seen in the decline of educational rigidity, the lessened emphasis on authority and tradition, and the will to experimentation. University organization has felt the impact of democracy and faculty organization has developed faculty-trustee committees, the faculty senate, the faculty committee on university policy, faculty-student participation in government, the student council as an actual agency of government, and student membership on university committees.

One significant aspect of the new developments is the appointment of Negroes to the faculties of white colleges and the reverse, the appointment of white faculty colleagues to Negro colleges. It will be of interest to note that since 1945 there have been fifty-six Negro faculty members on thirty-four white college faculties for at least a quarter or longer of teaching, but most of them for an entire academic year. Twenty-four are on continuous assignment. This is a relatively small number when the total number of college teachers is considered, but when it is recalled that before the war there were very few such teachers, this new development becomes a milestone in the march of democracy in the colleges.

**D**EMOCRACY and education will advance as we recognize the dignity and integrity of each individual, as we apply the principle of equality of opportunity, and as we establish and abide by the principle of cooperative action in policy-making administration, and teaching.

# The Consumer Education Study

Thomas H. Briggs

THE word "consumer" has come to have an excitable effect on many people in our country, for the "consumer movement" has stirred up both its advocates and its critics. Although every person, young as well as old, is a constant consumer of goods and services, relatively little attention in popular or educational literature was paid to his peculiar activities and needs until half a generation ago. The swing of economic conditions following the First World War from prosperity to depression twice squeezed the ordinary citizen, and as a result a vigorous movement to better conditions for the consumer got under way.

This consumer movement advocated legislation, local and state as well as federal, to protect the consumer in various ways and to insure that his dollar brought him greater satisfactions. Since up to recent times economic legislation had been concerned primarily with the interests of the producer, the new movement was entirely proper and also was much needed. It undoubtedly did much good, but at the same time it had two bad results.

First, almost by necessity for effectiveness it brought out into the light practices by producers and distributors that reduced the effectiveness of the consumer's purchasing power. Some of these practices, like our complicated processes of distribution of goods, had developed naturally in our unplanned economy. Others were the result of sharp practices by men who were selfish and unscrupulous. By emphasizing the latter, which was necessary to achieve a betterment for consumers, the movement gave the impression that all business was suspect and that all business men would be crooks if they were not restrained. Of course, that is not true. Observation of business as we know it in our personal relations manifests that the great ma-

jority of those with whom we have dealings are upright and honest. This majority were just as much concerned and through their associations probably as actively effective as leaders of the consumer movement to eradicate bad practices, which harmed them quite as much as they harmed consumers. Our economy cannot be effective in an atmosphere of suspicion and mistrust.

A second bad result was that leaders of the consumer movement undertook to influence education in the public schools to promote reforms in our economic system. There can be no question of the fact that education has been—and, for that matter, still is—too little concerned with matters of practical importance and that this neglect has resulted in a generation that, as someone has said, is economically illiterate. But the needed remedy of this condition does not imply that the schools may properly be used to promote reforms which, advocated by minorities, have not been approved by the general public. It is perfectly proper and highly desirable for any person or any group of persons to attempt to convince the adult public that reforms of any kind are needed, and when that public is generally convinced it is proper for the schools so to teach that proposals and means for the reform are understood and even favorably respected. But it is quite a different thing for minority groups, however honest and altruistic, to attempt to use the schools to effect reforms that the general public has not approved.

## BACKGROUND AND SUPPORT

THE consumer movement and the activities of reputable business men, acting individually or in associations, have done much to improve practices that concern the welfare of consumers, but doubtless much still remains to be done. Recent activities seem to indicate that organizations representing both groups have decided to work together for beneficent results. Both seem to agree that the soundest foundation for an assured continued improvement is that young people shall be made economically literate—that they shall understand not only the fundamentals of economics but also the princi-

A cooperative effort of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Better Business Bureau to advance consumer education in the schools is described by its Director. Dr. Briggs is professor-emeritus of education in Teachers College, Columbia University.



ples and practices of reputable American business.

With this objective in mind, the National Better Business Bureau in 1941 asked the National Association of Secondary-School Principals if it would be interested to undertake the production of materials that would present objectively and impartially the facts about principles and practices in our economy. If the Association would undertake this project, the Bureau would provide not only necessary funds, but also access to the most authoritative sources of information.

Evidence of the suspicion existing at the time and of the sensitivity of the educational profession to any possible use of the schools for selfish purposes is the fact that more than a year was required for understanding and agreement. Finally the Association accepted the proposal, with the assurance that neither the Bureau nor the businesses that it represented would in any way attempt to influence the materials to be produced for the schools. It is a pleasure to report that this assurance has been in no way violated. The Bureau has furnished generous financial support, the money being raised from anonymous sources, and it has got access that ordinarily would not have been possible to authorities in every field that has been studied.

#### PUBLICATIONS

THE resulting Consumer Education Study first set itself to a consideration of what sort of education is needed to make a consumer intelligent, effective, and conscientious. The resulting definition, arrived at after consideration of all pertinent materials and consultation with a large number of interested people, is presented in *The Modern American Consumer*, the first of the unit publications by the Study. It greatly expands all previous concepts of consumer education, emphasizes the necessity of setting up life ideals as a basis for all choice making, and stresses the desirability of seeking full and rich living as opposed to narrowing penuriousness. So defined, consumer education is an essential in any program of general education.

Subsequently the Study has published a series of units that are of interest to teachers of the social studies. They concern advertising, insurance, investing in oneself, money management, consumer credit, the wise use of leisure time, buying health, consumer law, and standards and labels. Other units, in preparation concern production, distribution, and effective shopping.

These units sell for thirty-five cents each, with liberal quantity discounts. A handbook for teachers and administrators telling how consumer education can be introduced and made effective is also available at the nominal price of sixty cents.

The Study is also producing several books: *Economic Roads for American Democracy*, *Enjoying Your Life in the Country*, a series of buying guides concerning the most commonly used goods, and a textbook for classroom use. These are all published by the McGraw-Hill Book Company.

The first mentioned of these books, already off the press, should be of great interest to all teachers of the social studies. It presents in simple style the five economic theories competing today for adoption in our country. Each theory is first presented in colloquial language by G.I.s who tell what they want after getting home, and then in a subsequent chapter in academic language with quotations from authorities. Each pair of chapters was read and criticized by leading proponents of the theory presented, so that the revision makes the book probably the most authoritative presentation possible of the competing economic theories now seeking approval by our people. Each theory is presented with entire objectivity; no one is advocated.

Realizing that in many schools consumer education will be presented not as a separate subject, but as a part of social studies, mathematics, sciences, home economics, and business education, the Study financed committees representing the national associations of these several subjects to consider the resulting problems. Each committee, advised but not dominated by representatives of the Study, prepared a report with three major parts: first, it defined consumer education or emphasized its importance; second, it tells what concerning it is now being taught in the subject represented; and, third, it suggests what further elements can properly be taught. *Consumer Education and the Social Studies*, a 24-page pamphlet, was distributed in 1945 to all members of the National Council for the Social Studies and of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. A few copies are still available. There is no charge for single copies. In quantity, they cost fifteen cents each.

#### STANDARDS FOR FREE MATERIALS

ONE further activity of the Study remains to be mentioned. Recognizing that schools are flooded with offers of free materials by busi-

ness concerns and realizing that they vary from valuable educational enrichment, on the one hand, to rank sales promotion and propaganda, on the other, the Study, after a series of conferences with representatives of education and of business, published a report, *Commercial Supplementary Teaching Materials*. This report, after discussing the several problems involved, set up two criteria that had received general approval: first, that such materials must contribute to the educational objectives of the school; and, second, that they must contain no sales promotion, "no urges to try or buy."

With the publication of this monograph, the Study offered two services: to transmit to business suggestions of what the schools want, and to advise in the preparation of booklets, business charts, films, and the like for school use. As business undoubtedly has much that schools can profitably use, particularly data that have not yet got into textbooks, suggestions from schools are likely to draw out what might not otherwise be offered. Two reports of suggestions have already been prepared, one by the National Association of Science Teachers and one by the American Vocational Association. Reports by

other associations are likely to be made in the future.

The services of the Study to advise in the preparation of sponsored materials have been used by a number of the most important companies in the country. Although they have no obligation to accept advice, they generally have done so, with the result that materials that they offer schools are more truly educational, better adapted to the needs of special groups of pupils, and largely freed from what is objectionable in the way of advertising.

**E**XPERIENCE of the Consumer Education Study has evidenced a sincere interest on the part of an important element of the public in enriching the work of the schools. The recognition that what is truly good for education is eventually good for business has influenced the giving of much help to the schools through contribution not only of money but also of important information. The unique cooperation of business and education has proved that when the needs of the schools are clearly put before the public, it will contribute generously and unselfishly to their satisfaction.

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Consumer Education Is Essential in an Economy in Which All Face Problems as Consumers: With the coming of the great technology, individuals increasingly have become specialists in producing and generalists in consuming the wide range of complex goods and services which the machine age has made available. Consequently education for the consumer, confronted with multiple choices, is needed in the twentieth century as never before. The war has driven home to us the importance of problems of consumption. Many civilians felt the impact of war largely through rationing, price control, campaigns for saving, and the fight against inflation. We have seen the miracle of production take place in America; a pressing postwar question is whether, with the use of intelligence, we can distribute our potential plenty to the American people and so match the production miracle with a consumption and distribution miracle. Postwar consumption problems are on the horizon—deflation, spending of savings, income distribution. Since consumer education will continue to be important in postwar years, specifically the Commission suggests that:

—the real consumer problems of young people should be studied in American schools; problems including choosing, buying and using food, clothing, shelter, education, and recreation. . . .

—consumer education should be utilized to enable the individual student to develop values and establish standards of choice-making which will help him toward a richer, more useful, and happier life; stress on choice-making and values should characterize all consumer education activities rather than be conceived as a separate unit (National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies Look Beyond the War*, November, 1944. Pp. 24-25).

# Evolution of Civil Government As a School Subject

John A. Nietz and Wayne E. Mason

**M**OST of the common subjects in the American school curriculum had their origin in European practice, particularly in England. Not only did America borrow the practice of teaching the subjects commonly taught there, but even many of the early textbooks used here were brought from England. As the colonies attained political freedom, it was natural for them to seek cultural and educational independence as well.

Such subjects as reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, grammar, aspects of European history, geography, and others had European precedents. The teaching of civil government and of American history originated soon after, and as a result of, the formation of our nation. It was only natural that a better understanding of the principles and practices of our government should be taught in the schools.

## AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT

**T**HE introduction of civil government as a school subject probably dates from 1793 when Nathaniel Chipman published a book entitled *Sketches of the Principles of Government* (Rutland, Vt.). It is not certain that this book was used as a school textbook. Its organization and contents, however, followed the general textbook pattern. In a later textbook Chipman referred to the fact that his earlier work had been "well received at the time,"<sup>1</sup> and indicated that it was a civil government textbook. If this is correct, Chipman's first volume may have marked the beginning of the formal teaching of civil government in the schools of the United States.

The textbook which heretofore has been generally recognized as the first in this field was that

of Winchester, published in 1796.<sup>2</sup> This evidently attained considerable popularity, for a second edition was published in 1802.

Even though these two books dealing with civil government appeared early in our national history, their use must have been confined to a mere fraction of the schools in our country. Most pupils attending school must have gained their political education elsewhere or not at all. An analysis of early textbooks reveals that considerable content which can be classified as related to civil government appeared in books of other fields, particularly in geographies, histories, and readers. The earliest American geography textbook, Jedidiah Morse's *Geography Made Easy*, published in 1784, briefly described the operation of the national government under the Articles of Confederation and the governments of the several states. In 1796 Noah Webster included in his *American Spelling Book* a section devoted to "A Moral Catechism and the Federal Constitution." Two years later his *The Little Reader's Assistant* contained a chapter on "A Federal Catechism or a Short and Easy Exposition of the Constitution of the United States." His *Elements of Useful Knowledge, Volume II*, published in 1804, presented a somewhat detailed description of the operation of the executive, legislative, and judicial departments of the several state governments, and of the national government. These three school books, as was generally true of all of Webster's works, enjoyed a long and wide circulation.

To the field of American history, however, the study of civil government owes its greatest debt. Cubberley, in a discussion of early American history textbooks, recognizes this debt, although he is wrong in dating the introduction of civil government into the curriculum:

<sup>1</sup> Nathaniel Chipman, *Principles of Government: A Treatise on Free Institutions Including the Constitution of the United States* (Burlington, Vt., 1833), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup> Elhanan Winchester, *A Plain Political Catechism Intended for the Use of Schools in the U.S. of America Wherein the Great Principles of Liberty, and of the Federal Government are Laid Down and Explained by Way of Question and Answer* (Greenfield, Mass., 1796).

Contrary to statements in many histories of education and of the social studies, civil government seems to have been widely taught in American schools from the early years of the federal union. So conclude a professor of education in the University of Pittsburgh and a teacher of social studies in the McKeesport, Pennsylvania, public schools.



Shortly afterward Noah Webster's *History of the United States* appeared to contest the popularity of the preceding two [books by B. Davenport and Samuel Goodrich]. Webster's volume contained an introduction to the study of the Constitution of the United States, and his book marked the beginning of the study of civics in our grammar schools.<sup>3</sup>

Jacobs,<sup>4</sup> in an analysis of over 60 early American history textbooks published before 1885, found 19 per cent of the content was devoted to political matters and government. From such humble beginnings the study of civil government gained impetus and developed a place in the American school curriculum.

#### FALSE IMPRESSIONS

ALTHOUGH numerous research studies have been made touching on the evolution of the teaching of the different subjects included under social studies, certain errors concerning their early development persist. This is partly due to the fact that the findings of educational research often remain in unpublished form and largely unavailable to the casual inquirer.

The chief misconception concerning civil government seems to have been that it entered the curriculum of our schools about the middle of the nineteenth century. The writers of this article, however, have located twenty-six separately authored textbooks, exclusive of duplicate editions, that were published prior to 1850 and apparently used in the American schools. This refutes the frequently expressed opinion that the early schools provided only incidental instruction in political institutions, patriotism, and citizenship.

Burke Hinsdale, whose book *How to Study and Teach History* (1894) contained a chapter on "Teaching Civics," said that there was very little pedagogical literature relating to the subject of civil government. The oldest textbook in the field to which he referred was Andrew's *Manual of the Constitution*, written in 1874. Beyond this reference, he did not attempt to establish the entrance of the subject into the curriculum, but introduced the chapter by stating that "For a decade and more increasing attention has

been paid in our schools to teaching the branch of study called Civics and Civil Government."

Bourne, in a similar book, allotted to civil government only two of the twenty chapters, in which he helped establish the aforementioned error by saying that "Civics, like history, has only within recent years got beyond the stage of utter neglect or perfunctory attention."<sup>5</sup>

In the 1926 edition of Monroe's *Encyclopedia of Education*, originally published in 1911, the subject of "civics" was introduced by stating:

Like most subjects outside of the three R's in the elementary school curriculum, and the classics and mathematics in the secondary course of study, the subject matter of civics was not taught in the schools until some years after the middle of the nineteenth century.

The article, written by James Sullivan of the New York State Department of Education, thus expressed what Dawson called "the general impression in much of the literature concerning the beginnings of the teaching of civil government in American schools."<sup>6</sup>

Judd, in writing concerning Alden's *Citizen's Manual*, published in 1867, gave undue credit to that author in saying:

The 50's and 60's were characterized by a restless public demand for a broader education. . . . It was relatively easy during this period for a new subject to find its way into the school curriculum.<sup>7</sup>

Apparently accepting Judd's statement as authentic, Hill later wrote:

In consequence, as Judd points out, it was comparatively easy for a new subject to secure entrance into the schools. At that time sociology was non-existent while political economy was still in its infancy. Hence the way was relatively clear for the newcomer [civil government].<sup>8</sup>

#### REVISIONIST ATTITUDE

EDGAR DAWSON, a pioneer in this field of study, richly deserves the tribute paid him by Earle Rugg, who referred to him as "an authority on early civics textbooks."<sup>9</sup> He appears to have been the first writer to locate and give credit to the existence of early textbooks in the field of civil government, naming several early

<sup>3</sup> Henry Bourne, *The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and Secondary School* (New York: Longmans Green, 1903), p. 93.

<sup>4</sup> Edgar Dawson, "Beginnings in Political Education," *Historical Outlook*, IX: 439, November, 1918.

<sup>5</sup> Charles H. Judd, "The Teaching of Civics," *School Review*, XXVI: 513, September, 1918.

<sup>6</sup> Howard C. Hill, "The New Civics: Its Evolution and Meaning," *Historical Outlook*, XIV: 223, June, 1923.

<sup>7</sup> Earle Rugg, "How the Current Courses in History, Geography, and Civics Came to be What They Are," *National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Second Yearbook, Part 2, 1923, p. 23.*

<sup>8</sup> Elwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1934), p. 298. See also Alice W. Spieseke, *The First Textbooks in American History and Their Compiler, John McCulloch* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938).

<sup>9</sup> Chauncey D. Jacobs, "The Development of School Textbooks in United States History from 1795 to 1885" (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1939), p. 162.

authors in the field and quoting excerpts from several of these early textbooks. The textbook authors whom he quoted were Winchester (1796), Sullivan (1830), Young (1836), Mansfield (16th Edition, 1849), Mason (1842), Shurtleff (1845), and Burleigh (1848), and then he commented as follows:

Can there be any doubt that there was a real effort to teach the principles of government in the schools of this period? Could these and other similar books have found publishers in those days if the books had not sold? Would thousands of copies have been sold if there had been no classes in the subject?<sup>10</sup>

However, the sources available for his information must not have been too complete, otherwise Dawson, diligent student that he was, would not have made the following statement:

A careful search has failed to reveal a single book written for school work in government between 1848 and 1873. A few titles have been found, but the books do not seem to have been preserved, and the titles do not indicate the purpose of the books or the character of their content. . . . It is scarcely reasonable to expect that books on this subject would have been written in such a period of stress.<sup>11</sup>

Contrariwise, the writers have found the period to have been quite prolific, as twenty separate and distinct textbooks published between those dates were located. Earle Rugg, in a report on the development of school courses in history, geography, and civics, wrote:

While detailed lists of texts for civics and geography have not been compiled, the existence today of about a dozen civics texts of the early period and some eight or ten geographies published before 1860 would lead one to conclude that these subjects were also studied.<sup>12</sup>

This statement makes very evident the justification for studies such as those made by Jacobs,<sup>13</sup> Sahli,<sup>14</sup> and Culler.<sup>15</sup> Of the American history textbooks analyzed by Jacobs, thirty were published before 1860, and of the geography textbooks analyzed by Sahli and Culler, eighty-eight were published before 1860. Yet none of these writers claims that he discovered all that were published before that date.

As civil government evolved into civics it received more attention. Yet writings referring to the history of this field continued to err concern-

ing its importance in the past. Thus Moore says:

The rapid rise in number [of textbooks] as well as the changes in nature tend to corroborate the recognition of the rising importance of the teaching of citizenship. As early as 1797, Elhanan Winchester sought to make a contribution to good citizenship through a textbook *A Plain Political Catechism*. During the period from 1830 to 1860 the length of the list began to grow. During this period four textbooks appeared. From 1860 to 1892 about a dozen were added.<sup>16</sup>

As a matter of fact, Mason discovered and analyzed seventy civil government textbooks published in the United States before 1890, all of which bore separate titles, and thus not counting the numerous editions in which many of these books appeared.<sup>17</sup> Chronologically, two were published before 1800, two between 1800 and 1824, twenty-two between 1825 and 1849, eighteen between 1850 and 1874, and twenty-six between 1875 and 1890.

CERTAINLY there must have been a sale and use for textbooks in civil government, else not so many books would have been published in the field. Further light is thrown on their possible use by statements appearing either in the prefaces or on the title pages. Thirty-five title pages specify "For the Use in Schools."

Evidence concerning rather wide usage of books in this field can be gathered from an examination of their republication. The books of the following authors, arranged in chronological order, were published in numerous editions: William Sullivan, Andrew Young, John Burleigh, Furman Sheppard, Joseph Alden, and D. W. Andrews. The Nietz Collection of Old Textbooks at the University of Pittsburgh contains eleven civil government books under five titles and without a duplicate, written by Andrew Young. The first was published in 1835 and the latest in 1885. For example the 1841 edition of Young's *Introduction to the Science of Government* was the seventh edition. Yet the writers of this article make no claim that all the books in this field published before 1890 have been located.

Thus it is the hope of the writers that at least one false conception of the American school curriculum of the past may hereafter be corrected: namely, the conception concerning the part that civil government has played in the evolution of American educational history.

<sup>10</sup> Clyde B. Moore, *Citizenship Through Education* (New York: American Book Company, 1921), pp. 55-56.

<sup>11</sup> Wayne E. Mason, "Analysis of Early American Civil Government Textbooks" (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1944).

<sup>10</sup> Edgar Dawson, *loc. cit.*, p. 440.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>12</sup> Earle Rugg, *loc. cit.*, p. 54.

<sup>13</sup> Chauncey D. Jacobs, *op. cit.*

<sup>14</sup> John R. Sahli, "An Analysis of Early American Geography Textbooks from 1784 to 1840" (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1941).

<sup>15</sup> Ned Culler, "The Development of American Geography Textbooks from 1840 to 1890" (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1945).

# Changing Interpretations of Andrew Johnson's Impeachment

Louise Ilse

THE impeachment of Andrew Johnson was a political episode. It is not surprising, therefore, that historians have stressed the political aspects of the struggle brought about by the inability of Congress and the President to reconcile their differing interpretations of the Federal bond between the states and their opposing conceptions of the Union. Social, economic, and nationalist factors have been insufficiently recognized even though historians have revised early interpretations both of Johnson and of the political phase of the controversy.

The attitude of Andrew Johnson on Reconstruction, the great issue of the time, determined his supporters and his antagonists. As Lincoln's basic plan of reconstruction was put into effect, with a change or two of Johnson's own conception, there arose increasing protest from those who wanted the South to be punished more harshly. Among these were such distinct groups as Radical Republicans, Abolitionists, loyal Southerners, and articulate Negroes. The supporters of the Presidential plan of reconstruction were the Conservative Republicans, the Democrats, and the ex-Confederates. In the tug of war between these two groups the balance slowly swung toward the Radical Republicans, who had launched a campaign against Johnson and proceeded to make capital of his mistakes.

The first attempt to impeach the President came after he vetoed the three bills dealing with Negro suffrage: the Freedmen's Bureau Bill, the Civil Rights Bill, and the bill granting manhood suffrage to the Negroes in the District of Columbia. Another attempt at impeachment was made by Congress after the passage of the Tenure of Office Act over Johnson's veto. The President, long aware of Secretary of War Stanton's dis-

loyalty to him, requested the latter's resignation. Upon Stanton's refusal, Johnson suspended him and notified Congress of the action and the reasons for it. He asked General Grant to take the post temporarily while the Senate was considering the matter of suspension. If the decision should be to retain Stanton, the President intended to take the matter to the courts to test the constitutionality of the Tenure of Office Act. His opponents in the House wished to impeach the President, but they could not do so merely on the grounds of his "intentions." When the Senate ordered Stanton's reinstatement, Grant resigned and thus prevented Johnson from getting the judicial test he desired. The President refused to recognize Stanton as Secretary of War and appointed Lorenzo Thomas in his place. This was a violation of the Tenure of Office Act and furnished the most substantial basis for proceeding with impeachment.

## CONTEMPORARY ATTITUDES

THE anti-Johnson writers of the day evoked the "devil theory" to justify the impeachment of the President. The Southerners, this theory claimed, with the exception of the Negroes and a few loyal whites, were traitors, determined to regain by prostitution of the ballot the power they had lost in the war. The Democrats were regarded as equally disloyal, desirous of joining forces with the Southern rebels in order to wrest control of the government from those who had won the war. Johnson, his adversaries held, was a Southerner, a Democrat, and a very "wicked" man. They charged him with usurping the powers of Congress, administering his powers in a foolish and unlawful manner, and literally forcing Congress to take over the restoration of the Union. They accused him of inconsistency, disloyalty, and contempt of Congress.

Johnson was not without supporters. These claimed that there was a Congressional conspiracy against him, and that actually he was the defender of the Constitution. The Radicals, these supporters maintained, were seeking to

The rehabilitation of Andrew Johnson by successive generations of historians is reviewed by a graduate student in history at Columbia University, in a striking illustration of the process by which history is sometimes rewritten.



abolish the system of checks and balances and lodge complete power in the House of Representatives. They denied many of the charges made against the President, and explained others.

Contemporary writers who had an anti-Johnson point of view included such Radical Republicans as Adam Badeau, a member of General Grant's staff, James G. Blaine, John R. Lynch, Edward McPherson, Green B. Raum, Carl Schurz, E. V. Smaley, the Rev. Oliver S. St. John, Henry Clay Warmoth, and Henry Wilson. The writers who defended the President included ex-Confederates Dr. Charles Delery and Hilary A. Herbert; Conservative Republicans like the President's Secretary, Frank Moore of New Hampshire, and Henry Ward Beecher (who quickly withdrew his limited approval in the face of antagonistic public opinion); and Democrats like Robert J. Atkinson and George W. Jones.<sup>1</sup>

#### HISTORIANS ATTACK JOHNSON

**I**N ADDITION to the political accusations made by his opponents, all possible moral, racial, social, psychological, and economic influences were used to set public opinion against Johnson and facilitate his impeachment. His personal character was attacked in one of the worst smear campaigns ever directed against an American president.<sup>2</sup> Although charges of drunkenness and immorality were not substantiated by those who knew him best,<sup>3</sup> the psychological effect of these and other statements was tremendous.

The rehabilitation of Johnson's reputation and standing has been gradual. A later generation of historians witnessed the failure of radical reconstruction and saw the conflict between Johnson and Congress with less prejudiced eyes. They regarded the President not as a traitor but as a loyal though weak person, unfitted to occupy the Presidency. They felt that Johnson's failure to compromise, and his stubbornness and defiance of Congress, which encouraged the Southern states to reject the Fourteenth Amendment, drove the moderates of the North into the ranks of the

Radicals. Thus he was responsible for the radical reconstruction program, and his impeachment was caused by his own stubbornness and lack of flexibility in dealing with Congress.

Most historians at the turn of the century clung to this modified devil theory—among them Northerners such as Elisha Benjamin Andrews, Frederick Bancroft, William Conant Church, William A. Dunning, Harrison Gray Otis, Edward L. Pierce, James Ford Rhodes, William O. Stoddard; Southerners like John W. Burgess, Woodrow Wilson, Charles Ernest Chadsey, Burr J. Ramage, W. P. Trent, P. J. Hamilton; and popular writers like Hamlin Garland.<sup>4</sup>

#### RECTIFICATION

**T**HE first important step in the rehabilitation of Andrew Johnson came in 1903 with the publication of David Miller DeWitt's *The Impeachment and Trial of Andrew Johnson*. The study was based on some papers of the ex-President and a series of scrapbooks compiled by Colonel William G. Moore, one of Johnson's secretaries. These books contained letters, telegrams, documents, and clippings from periodicals and newspapers of the day. The causes of the impeachment, according to this new interpretation, were predominantly political, and the President was the victim of the aims of radicals to perpetuate their power. Stanton was the devil whose machinations caused public opinion to demand the President's impeachment. According to DeWitt, Johnson was an able man, more sinned against than sinning. It is interesting to note that in 1912 John B. Henderson, one of the seven Republicans who voted for Johnson's acquittal, supported in public print this concept of the President.<sup>5</sup>

Rehabilitation was carried further in 1913 when James Schouler, making use of the Johnson manuscripts shortly before placed in the library of Congress, and of Gideon Welles' diary, published in 1910-1911, issued the last volume of his work *The History of the United States of America under the Constitution*. Schouler showed Johnson as an able, patient man, forbearing, as Welles said, "almost to infirmity"<sup>6</sup> under assaults, intrigue, and abuse. In addition to the political causes, Schouler laid stress on the psychological influences that brought about the demand for impeachment. The North, he claimed, did not trust Johnson and, in fact, would never have

<sup>1</sup> Consult any good bibliographical guide for the writings of those mentioned in this paragraph.

<sup>2</sup> Thomas Nast, *Harper's Weekly*, 1866-67, *passim*; D. R. Locke, *Swinging Round the Circle*, 1866; Oliver S. St. John, "Moses" or the Man who Supposes Himself to be Moses—No Moses at All, 1886, pp. 6, 21; Zedekiah Comitatus, *Reconstruction on "My Policy,"* 1866; Vaticanina Atlantica, *Prophecies re: Impeachment of Andrew Johnson*, 1866; Lafayette C. Baker, *The History of the United States Secret Service*, 1868, pp. 603 et seq.

<sup>3</sup> B. C. Truman, *Century Magazine*, LXXXV, 1913, p. 438 et seq., "Recollections"; Hugh McCulloch, *Men and Measures*, 1888, p. 393; Lloyd P. Stryker, *Andrew Johnson: A Study in Courage*, 1929, p. 359.

<sup>4</sup> See bibliographical guides for the writings in question.

<sup>5</sup> John B. Henderson, "Emancipation and Impeachment," *Century Illustrated Monthly Magazine*, No. 85, 1912-13.

<sup>6</sup> Gideon Welles, *Diary*, Vol. III, 1911, p. 190.

trusted any Southerner in the post. In Johnson's case, his humble birth and upbringing had fostered a wide belief that he was ignorant, illiterate, vulgar, and incapable. He had been presumed to be violent and irrational whereas really he was self-restrained and sound of judgment. His inner life and habits were pure and wholesome. His fatal error, which made impeachment possible, lay in not having displaced Stanton earlier. Other writers of this period who accepted this general thesis were L. B. Shippee and William L. Frierson.

But not all historians went along with the interpretations of DeWitt and Schouler. The "wicked man" doctrine still persisted in the writings of William Conant Church, Louis A. Coolidge, David S. Muzzey, and George Creel.<sup>7</sup> Similarly, the "weak but stubborn executive" theory was maintained by W. L. Fleming and Marguerite Hall Albjerg.<sup>8</sup>

#### THE DEVIL IS LAID AT LAST

IN THE late 1920s and early '30s came another group of historians who completed Johnson's rehabilitation with several detailed studies of his career: Robert W. Winston, Claude G. Bowers, George Fort Milton, and Lloyd Paul Stryker.<sup>9</sup> These pictured the President as the wisest and most far-seeing statesman of the period, whose sound constructive policy for Southern restoration was defeated because he was caught in a web of unfortunate circumstances. While thoroughly denouncing the tactics that led to Johnson's impeachment, these authors admitted that the President's personal weaknesses did contribute in varying measure to the radical success in building up a psychological reaction so strong that he never had a chance. These four were adherents of the Democratic party; the last two were much more partisan than the others in attempting to vindicate Andrew Johnson—in fact, Stryker could see no fault at all in his hero.

Most historians writing on Reconstruction in recent years have featured the fact that Andrew

Johnson was impeached because he was the nominal head of the government, but actually a man without a party, cast out by the South, unwelcome to the North. Among the writers increasingly sympathetic towards Johnson are John Spencer Bassett, Howard K. Beale, William Norwood Brigance, J. H. Denison, John D. Hicks, Robert Selph Henry, Curtis P. Nettels, Ellis Paxson Oberholzer, Frederic L. Paxson, Richard J. Purcell, Samuel Elliot Morison, Henry Steele Commager, James G. Randall, Arthur Meier Schlesinger, George Winston Smith, George M. Stephenson, and Charles Willis Thompson.

#### SOCIAL FACTORS IN IMPEACHMENT

INCREASING attention has also been given in recent years to the social and economic factors of the impeachment story. The social factors that aroused public support of the demand for Johnson's removal were exceedingly varied. First of all was the racial problem. Articulate Negroes such as Frederick D. Douglass denounced the President for his veto of the Negro suffrage bills and for his policy of reconstruction that permitted ex-Confederates to share in the government. They charged that when he was Military Governor of Tennessee he had made a speech in which he offered to be the "Moses" of the colored people and advocated confiscation of the large plantations in order to give small plots of land to poor laborers; but when he became President and realized that Negroes would be the main beneficiaries of such action, he said no more about it. Much was made of the fact that Johnson had been a slaveholder, on a small scale; and it was charged that he considered the Negroes to be an inferior race. Not only contemporaries, but later historians such as W. L. Fleming accused Johnson of being anti-Negro. Schouler, on the other hand, held that Johnson was neither hostile nor indifferent to the plight of the new freedmen, but sympathetic. Yet the sentiment at the time was for immediate suffrage, and there is no doubt that Johnson's stand strengthened his opposition.

Ironically, Johnson was bitterly hated by the Southern aristocracy. He had been a "poor white" himself, he had remained loyal to the Union when his state seceded, and he had issued a proclamation charging Jefferson Davis and other high-ranking Southerners with complicity in the assassination of Lincoln. Not even his policy of leniency could win him the support of this Southern group. Southern Unionists, and the educated classes of the North, also opposed him. It is not surprising that the combined efforts of

<sup>7</sup> W. C. Church, *U.S. Grant and the Period of National Preservation and Reconstruction*, 1926, pp. 341, 343, 345; Louis A. Coolidge, *U.S. Grant*, 1917, pp. 238, 239; David S. Muzzey, *James G. Blaine*, 1934, p. 50; George Creel, "The Tailor's Vengeance," *Collier's*, Nov. 27, 1926, p. 23.

<sup>8</sup> W. L. Fleming, *Sequel of Appomattox*, 1919, pp. 71, 72, 82, 84, 132, 134, 137, 138, 161, 162; Marguerite H. Albjerg, "Andrew Johnson and the New York Press," *South Atlantic Quarterly*, Vol. 26, 1927, pp. 406, 407, 408, 416.

<sup>9</sup> Robert W. Winston, *Andrew Johnson: Plebeian and Patriot*, 1928, *passim*; Claude G. Bowers, *The Tragic Era*, 1929, *passim*; George F. Milton, *The Age of Hate*, 1930, *passim*; Lloyd Paul Stryker, *Andrew Johnson: A Study in Courage*, 1929, *passim*.

these groups to discredit the President in the eyes of the country in general should have resulted in public demand for impeachment.

#### ECONOMIC FACTORS

**E**CONOMIC factors that contributed to the movement for impeachment were not given much consideration by historians until recently. It has now been pointed out that Johnson had always opposed indirect taxation, that tariffs and other revenue taxes were his abomination and that he could not have been expected to accept the complex paternalistic and federalistic principles adopted by the Republicans in Congress. He had no sympathy with political favors extended to Northern capitalists. By making open declaration that "an aristocracy based on nearly two billion and a half of national securities has arisen in the Northern states to assume that political control which the consolidation of great financial and political interests formerly gave to the slave oligarchy"<sup>10</sup> Johnson added another corps to the army of his enemies.

Moreover, the Southern Unionists, as represented by Governor William G. Brownlow of Tennessee, said that Johnson's insane policy of holding out to "pestilential disloyalists" the hope that they would be restored to power, deterred men of capital and enterprise from coming into the state.<sup>11</sup> This was another reason for the growing demand for the President's removal.

Howard K. Beale, who gives the finest economic interpretation of this story, stated that Johnson was impeached because of his failure to make his criticism of Congress part of a constructive financial reform. By training and instinct, Beale points out, Johnson was an enemy of landholders, national banks, monopolies, and the protective tariff. If he had attacked the economic views of the Eastern wing of the Radical party, and aroused the West upon the subject, he would have swung the West to his support, split the Radical party, and blocked impeachment.<sup>12</sup>

Another issue that caused the Eastern capitalists to call for Johnson's removal was his stand on payment of the Civil War bonded debt.<sup>13</sup> In his third annual message to Congress, Johnson said that all creditors of the government, not

only the bond-holders who were paid in coin, should be paid in a currency possessing a uniform value. While he did not mention paying the debt in greenbacks, the Republicans felt that they must attack him—otherwise he might become the leader of an easy-money party, and prevent their plan for hastening reconstruction of the South to gain a solid block of radical votes and thus save the public debt.<sup>14</sup>

Louis M. Hacker's economic interpretation of the struggle between the President and Congress is that it was a war to retain political control over the Southern states and thereby assure the continuance of industrial capitalism.<sup>15</sup>

#### NATIONALIST FACTORS

**A** NATIONALIST interpretation has also been suggested by several present-day historians. Nettels has said that Johnson was a nationalist at a time when sectional passions ran high; that in 1861 he put the preservation of the Union above the interests of the South, and that in 1865 he put recovery of the nation above the prejudices and interests of the North.<sup>16</sup> Winston held the opposite view: the rise of nationalism was manifest in Europe and America but Johnson set himself against a force that has controlled the world from that day to our own.<sup>17</sup>

**S**TUDY of the causes of the impeachment of President Johnson shows clearly that prejudices and biases born of the passions and angers of the first generation have grown cooler as time has elapsed and as succeeding generations of historians have had access to source materials not available to their predecessors. It shows, too, that one cannot point to any one factor as "the" definitive cause and that historical interpretation must take into account social, moral, psychological, and economic factors in judging political events.

In the case of Andrew Johnson, consideration of all these factors has vindicated the only President who ever was impeached and has given us a satisfying picture of a remarkable man, a wise and far-seeing statesman—the personification of the American dream of democracy under which the least of us may achieve the highest position of leadership in our country.

<sup>10</sup> Bowers, *op. cit.*, p. 116.

<sup>11</sup> William B. Hesseltine, "Economic Factors in the Abandonment of Reconstruction," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, Vol. 22, 1935, pp. 191-210.

<sup>12</sup> Howard K. Beale, *The Critical Year*, 1930, *passim*.

<sup>13</sup> William A. Russ, Jr., "The Political Influence of the Civil War Bonded Debt during Johnson's Administration," *Susquehanna University Studies*, Vol. II, No. 4, p.

401.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 404.

<sup>15</sup> Louis M. Hacker, *The Triumph of American Capitalism*, 1940, pp. 374-76.

<sup>16</sup> Curtis P. Nettels, "Andrew Johnson and the South," *South Atlantic Quarterly*, Vol. XXV, 1926, p. 64.

<sup>17</sup> Winston, *op. cit.*, p. 328.



# The Study of Culture in General Education

Robert Redfield

**A**N ANTHROPOLOGIST may be expected to talk about culture and he will be understood to mean by that word the whole integrated traditional body of ways of doing, thinking, and feeling that give a social group its character. The burden of this paper can be put in a single sentence: Understanding of the nature of culture and of human nature is something which the social studies can contribute to general education. Four assumptions underlie this principal proposition about the place of the understanding of culture and human nature in a program of general education.

First is the assumption that there is an education which is substantially the same for everyone, an education that is independent of the sex, class, race, or occupation of the educated individual. Perhaps agreement with this assumption, a sort of central axiom in general education, may be taken for granted. The assumption allows us to change our teaching to take account of individual differences, but it holds that much of what is taught in those years of schooling which most children and young people pass through ought to be the same for all, and ought to be directed not to preparation for any special task but to the freeing of the mind and spirit and to preparation for the common responsibilities and opportunities of citizenship.

A second assumption, on which agreement also seems likely, is that in our changing and unpredictable world general education must somehow combine two objectives which appear antithetical: it must develop individuality and adaptiveness to change, and it must also provide us with

common understandings. The individual must be able to make decisions on matters which tradition cannot and should not control. On the other hand we have to have some common tradition to begin with, or we cannot act together at all.<sup>1</sup> Perhaps we can find elements for a program of general education which do both. This is my view.

I think, as a third assumption, that there are elements of that education which everybody can and should have which both make for consensus in society and also develop in the individual the power to make free rational choices.

A fourth assumption requires a fuller exposition than the others, and may well be the point at which general agreement will end. It is that our task is to identify some of the elements of this education for everybody in a form more general than particular courses or instructional units, but in a form more special than is provided in the usual definitions.

At one extreme we define general education in terms of education for the good life, or for citizenship, or as effecting the development of very general qualities of mind and character. Thus the Harvard report says that the aim is to bring it about that the generally educated are able "to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, to discriminate among values." No one can object to such a statement, but it does not tell us very much.

At the other extreme we define general education in terms of courses. Yet such definition of a program in general education is a definition for a particular school, because it is an allocation of resources within the powers of that school. It cannot be a definition for all schools.

Nevertheless, if general education is to provide for the common enlightenment of all, it should be possible to say of what this enlightenment is to consist, and to say it more specially than when it is defined in terms of general quali-

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A professor of anthropology in the University of Chicago reviews the existing school and college social studies program in general education and finds one important and needed element—the study of culture—either missing or little used. He presented this analysis and related suggestions at the Boston meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies last November.

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<sup>1</sup> *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945), pp. 46-47.

ties of the mind, and more generally than is proposed in a series of courses.

#### OUR TWO PRESENT APPROACHES

LOOKING first at the program of general education in the social sciences which I know best—that of the College of the University of Chicago—and casting a look or two at programs in other schools, I seem to find at least two principal elements. There is nothing startling about these. I suppose them to be present, more or less, in many programs of general education in the social studies and to find more or less explicit recognition.

For one thing we are trying to communicate understanding of the *historical development of contemporary society*, especially of our own Western and American society, and still more specially of some of the principal values of that society. This is to say that an element of general education contributed by the social studies is knowledge of how we, in this society, came to hold precious liberty, equality, government by the people, and other conceptions which go to make up our way of life both as it is and as we wish it to be. In this element of general education the emphasis is upon the past thoughts and the past events which have shaped present thoughts and present events.

For another thing we are trying to convey some *understanding of the scientific spirit as applied to social problems* of the present day, and the capacity to address oneself in that spirit to such a problem. The social problems we have in mind form no fixed list; we suppose the generally educated person can show his competence with regard to almost any of them: the problem of maintaining control by the people of their government under the conditions of mass publics which attend us today; the problem of choice among various policies with regard to free or controlled economic competition; the problems of means and ends involved in assuring in our society a chosen combination of freedom and of regulation. The educated person will be able to use the thoughts of those who have written best on such questions in the past, and will know what sorts of particular relevant facts need be taken into account in the seeking of solutions. Further, he has a moral as well as an intellectual attitude toward such problems: it is part of general education to develop the will to do something about these matters, to work out one's own views about them, whatever convictions they may lead to, and then to act on those convictions.

While in the first element of general education in the social studies the emphasis is on the historical development of our institutions and values, in this second element the emphasis is on a problem of common living, and on analysis of the assumptions and particular facts which go to make the problem and to limit the terms of the possible solutions.

These two are rightly present in programs of general education in the social sciences. By communicating and re-stating important parts of our own heritage and by developing a common responsibility to realize common values, the presence of these two elements in a program of general education helps to bring about consensus. By throwing responsibility on the individual to work out his own convictions through reason and the use of special knowledge, they develop capacities to deal with the vicissitudes of rapid social change.

#### LIMITATIONS OF PRESENT APPROACHES

IF GENERAL education in the social sciences were to include these two elements and no others, then such education would be exclusively concerned with our own traditions, our own history, our own system of values. The history that is taught to bring about the understanding and capacity these elements call for is a history of the Western world, and especially of the United States, and of the values that characterize our particular tradition. When comparisons are made in courses in history or on social problems, the comparisons are likely to be within the European-American tradition.

The world in which we now live, however, is one in which account must be taken of many people with many different heritages and different systems of values. If general education were to be concerned exclusively with our history and with our problems seen only in the light of our tradition it might be a dangerously limited education. It might not provide the individual with the elements of understanding of other ways of life than his own, or with the means of sympathetic understanding of other peoples.

In the second place it may be observed that the two elements of general education just identified attack the subject matter of the social sciences in only two of what I take to be the three ways in which it can be attacked: as history, or as social problems. A third way of looking at the subject matter of the social is by analysis with the use of concepts. By this third view the social consists of genera of natural phenomena—socie-

ties, social relations, customs, institutions, states, economies, and so forth. If the social is so regarded one sees the common characteristics of many or all societies, of many or all men, and sees the differences among them as representing sub-classes of natural phenomena. The histories of societies are themselves compared and generalized upon. And the problems of our own society are merely the points at which this generalizing form of regarding the social may make a fresh beginning.

#### PROPOSED STUDY OF CULTURES

THESE considerations prepare the way for my main proposal: that some understanding of human nature and culture is an element which the social studies may contribute to general education. The line of thought may be summarized. In seeking other elements of general education to be provided by the social studies we may try to supplement historical knowledge of our society and its values, and analytical competence as to social problems. The supplement called for should provide some of the elementary conceptual language in which the social is understood, in its universal aspects. It should also provide access to understanding of peoples and ways of life other than our own. The suggestion is that some exploration of culture and of human nature meets these requirements. I think we are now providing this element to some degree, but not clearly and explicitly.

There is some evidence indeed that this third element, together with the other two, is receiving some implicit recognition in American high schools. This evidence I find in an unpublished report on the social studies in secondary schools made by Robert D. Leigh to the Institute for Advanced Study from which Mr. Leigh gives me permission to quote. Mr. Leigh looked at the teaching of the social studies in eighty American high schools, and found four patterns of fixed curriculums. One or more of these patterns is followed in each of the schools he studied. One of these four, however, is not a pattern at all: it is that curriculum in which the needs or immediate interests of the pupils are guessed at or enquired into and instruction is organized around these interests, from home budgets to vocational guidance. This is to recognize no intellectual principle whatever, and this one of the four may be disregarded here.

The three patterns of instruction in the social studies which really are patterns correspond, it seems to me, with the three elements of general

education as to man in society which I am talking about today. For some high schools organize their teaching of the social studies in the form of a sequence of courses in history, in some cases concluding with a course in social problems. Another group of schools organize their teaching in the form of "social problems units." Here are forms of organization of teaching which should provide in the one case historical knowledge of society and its values and in the other competence to analyze a contemporary social problem and to act with regard to it.

The third pattern Mr. Leigh recognizes in the social studies of schools that organize their teaching around what is called a "cultural epoch core." In this curriculum the whole life of a people at some chosen era is the subject matter of instruction. Apparently the "cultural epoch core" has found favor at all levels of instruction. It is familiar in those successive units of instruction about Greece, China, the American Indian, and Mexico common in the elementary schools. In the high schools, according to Mr. Leigh, it appears in many curriculums in which the pupils devote the entire year to the study of "all the major aspects of a culture, its literature, art, drama, music and science—and especially its particular *Zeitgeist*, or prevailing idea characteristics." And it was represented at the college level in Mr. Meiklejohn's experiment at Wisconsin where Greek culture was studied in the first year and American culture in the second.

I am not at all sure that the "cultural epoch core" is a better single choice for teaching social studies than either of the other two patterns. I am interested in it here because it seems to point to a communication of understanding of culture and human nature. Of the three patterns of organization of teaching, this one could best be developed to provide conceptual language in which the social may be understood in its universal aspects, and is most likely to provide access to understanding of peoples and ways of life other than our own.

#### NATURE OF THE STUDY OF CULTURES

WHAT do I mean by "an understanding of culture"? I mean in the first place, acquaintance, familiarity, penetrating sympathetic comprehension of one culture other than one's own. From this first point of view the coming to know another culture is like coming to know a personality. The culture, like the personality, is seen as a persisting integration of dispositions to behave. It is unique, complex, self-



consistent. A culture, like a personality, is a way of life. It is the way of life of a particular society. Seen so, it is just one thing, that one way of life. To come to know it takes much time, as it takes much time to know a personality intimately. But while we all have abundant opportunity to come to know personalities different from our own, and in this knowledge come to see our own persons freshly and more wisely, not many of us have the opportunity, in ordinary living, to come to gain a good acquaintance with another culture.

The culture I am thinking of is one among many cultures. It is not culture in the generic of which I am thinking, the inventions, arts, and ideas of all mankind, those characteristics which set off man from the animals. I am thinking of the local and special forms of "culture," of culture in the sense in which the culture of the Andaman Islanders is one thing and that of the Chinese peasants is another. A contribution to general education which can be made by the social studies is the provision of opportunity to come to know one such culture more or less well. What culture is chosen is a secondary matter; it is more important that the fact and nature of "a culture" be understood than that any particular one be understood rather than another.

The understanding had of the unfamiliar culture, in my view, must reach the point where the educated individual begins to think how he would act in given situations if that other culture were his own. The individual educated as to another culture recognizes that the institutions and ideas of the other people are coherent, and provide those who live in terms of them with a system of values which give, for them, worthy meaning to effort and provide goals toward which to strive. Further, the understanding must reach the point where one sees human nature freshly. One must get beyond the culture to those elements in the behavior of the people which are, after all, the same as one's own. For as one comes to understand people who live by institutions and values different from one's own, at the same time one comes to see that those people are, nevertheless, at bottom quite like one's own people. The alien culture at first appears to us as a mask, enigmatic or repugnant. On closer acquaintance we see it as a garment for the spirit; we understand its harmonies and appreciate them. Finally, as acquaintance goes deeper still, we do not see, or for a time forget, the culture, but look only to the common humanity of the men and women beneath.

To describe this process of getting acquainted

with people with a culture different from our own is to recognize the experience as liberalizing. We are all limited in our understanding of our own conduct and that of our neighbors because we see everything by the preconceptions offered by our own culture. It is a task of education to provide a viewpoint from which the educated person may free himself from the limitations of these preconceptions. We are all islanders to begin with. An acquaintance with another culture, a real and deep acquaintance, is a release of the mind and the spirit from that isolation. It is to learn a universal language.

There is another way in which acquaintance with another culture is a major contribution to the education of every American. This is because the people of our country do not live in terms of a culture in quite the same sense in which the Andaman Islanders did or the Chinese peasants do. Cultures differ, not only in their content, in what values they emphasize; they also differ in the degree to which the values and institutions they provide are consistent and harmonious and in the extent to which they are uniformly acceptable to the people who live by them. The culture of the people of the United States is an entity much less well defined than the cultures of most of the peoples of history and of the world today. In this sense contemporary Americans need acquaintance with a well-integrated culture because they have never had any. And rational understanding of contemporary social problems—another element in general education—requires, it seems to me, some understanding of this fact. Ability to address oneself in the scientific spirit toward a problem of American life requires understanding of the fact that the consensual basis for common agreement found in a well-integrated culture, is here lacking in no small degree. And one can talk about this in general terms for hundreds of hours, I feel, without conveying real understanding of it. If one has intensive acquaintance with one society in which the culture is well integrated, the difference between that situation and our own is really understood. I doubt if one can come to understand it in any other way.

#### CURRICULUM APPLICATIONS

IS IT possible to get this kind of acquaintance with a culture by study, in the schools? I really do not know. But I am hopeful. I suppose that the best of the curriculums based on the "cultural epoch core" may take the pupil no small distance toward the goal. I do have some views

as to some of the decisions one would make if one tried, seriously to provide intensive acquaintance with another culture.

One would devote a long time to one culture. I am sure that it is better to devote much time to one or a very few than to spend a short time with each of many. Two years seems to me a short time in which, at second hand, to come to know a culture. If the program of teaching the social studies were planned as a whole, from the first to, say the fourteenth year, one might be able to make the understanding of one principal culture, with interruptions and digressions to consider comparable materials from other cultures, a major business of the entire period of fourteen years.

The primary teaching materials would consist of personal accounts of life in the society chosen for special study. Included would be autobiographies, letters, accounts of personal relations between Americans and members of the foreign group, and good fiction about the society. There are several reasons why one might choose a literate society, such as China; one reason lies in the availability of books written by members of that society. If China were chosen, one would read the classic and popular Chinese novels, as well as collections of popular lore. There is a great deal of such literature in English now, from many unfamiliar societies. Even the preliterate societies are now represented in intimate and revealing personal accounts of life as seen by Indians, Africans, Laplanders, and as written or spoken by members of these societies. I need only refer to the plastic and graphic arts. The pupil would make his acquaintance with the unfamiliar people through every kind of record expressive of their ways of living and thinking.

#### STUDY OF HUMAN NATURE

THIS becoming acquainted with culture would involve at the same time a becoming acquainted with human nature. This means that the young person is encouraged to recognize two kinds of universals having to do with human nature: one, the presence in our own and other societies of recurrent social types; and two, the presence under all cultures of a common humanity which makes it possible for all people to understand one another in some degree, about some things. Therefore the accounts of the alien culture will be read not only to get acquaintance with that culture, but also to meet again the types of personality which one meets in Boston or Chicago, and the common humanity one knows at home. Turi's *Book of Lapland* is a personal ac-

count of Lapp culture; it is also a self-portrait of a prudent and practical man. The Chinese novel *All Men Are Brothers* is an account of life among those forced to the edges of the more stable Chinese society of the thirteenth century; in it also we meet types of adventurers known to us from the literature of our own tradition. So this early study of culture and human nature will gain contributions from literature of our own heritage which illuminates human nature and defines social types. It can be imagined that *The Egoist*, *Fathers and Sons*, and Plutarch's *Lives* could be read in comparison with novels and autobiographies from China or other cultures foreign to us. So would understanding be gained of humanity in its two basic organized forms—culture and personality—against their common element, human nature.

#### PROBLEMS OF GRADE PLACEMENT

I HAVE just had in view the understanding of culture and human nature as it might be reached in the earlier years of schooling. In this first acquaintance the subject matter would appear in its concrete individuality. The first objective is the enrichment of experience with these basic aspects of the human. At this level little or no formal language of analysis is needed; the terms of common sense are sufficient. Nor is it needful at this beginning to think of the study as definitely the business of social science or as that of the humanities. It is both.

I suppose, however, that as the pupil moves from the earlier years of schooling to the secondary school and then to the first years of the college, the treatment of culture and of human nature may become, so far as the social studies are concerned, more abstract and systematic—in a word, more scientific. Indeed, the basic concepts of culture, personality, and human nature are needed in the minds of those who make the program of teaching and carry it into account from the very first primary grades. They come to the pupils as they develop capacity to use scientific concepts, and as—and this is the important point—they have gained such intimate and rich acquaintance with materials as to make the concepts really useful in the ordering and control of their world. I repeat the observation that concepts talked about away from materials are mere word-play.

I suppose that the more abstract and systematic consideration of culture and human nature may be developed in the tenth to the fourteenth years into a consideration of the subject matter of the

social in the third of the three ways which have been identified already in the course of my remarks. This is the way of social science considered, not as history, not as a rational and empirical consideration of problems of social action, but as a more or less systematic description of social phenomena as orderly aspects of the universe. So may the study of human nature and culture provide understanding of a few fundamental concepts.

#### CONCEPTS OF MAN IN SOCIETY

**Y**OU will see that not only do I suppose that human nature and culture are elements of understanding of our world which enter directly into the substance of a general or liberal education, but that I also think of them as primary concepts in the scientific description of man in society. So does common sense. We hear it said, "People are all alike." On the other hand it is said that East is East and West is West and never the twain shall meet. It is perhaps enough to add that culture, and its closely related term, society, are more inclusive conceptions than any such more special term as government, state, market, tribe, or family. An understanding of culture and society, as concepts, should lead to understanding of related concepts in the books of social science that are read in the latter part of a program of general education: the works of such social philosophers and social scientists as Aristotle, Machiavelli, Locke, Mill, Maine, and Sumner.

Young people exposed to fourteen years of general education in the social studies might be expected to answer questions as to the relation of "culture" to "the mores," as to the relation of the concept of "institutions" to that of "culture," and as to the translatability of the primary terms used in one great work in the social science field to terms used in another. It would seem appropriate if the examiners asked questions including such other related or dependent conceptions as to culture and society as "value" and "status." In the same way the conception of human nature, beginning as an awareness of the varied and yet stable characteristics of men in societies, might become a part of the more abstract and interrelated body of terms and general ideas by the aid of which understanding is extended and systematized.

My impression is that the young college people I know who, as a part of their general education, read Locke and Bentham and Sumner, become aware of the fact that assumptions as to human nature underlie the views of these writers. But I

also have the impression that they are unprepared to judge these assumptions, and that some acquaintance with human nature as a scientific subject matter would make their reading of these works more enlightening to them.

#### SOCIAL SCIENCE RESOURCES

**T**HE examples I have given as to directions in which the understanding of culture and of human nature might be developed in the latter part of a program of general education in the social studies point to anthropology and sociology or social psychology as sources of help in the development of this part of a program of general education. I admit to supposing that these sciences are concerned with some matters more fundamental for general education than are some of the others. I think, indeed, that a part of what these sciences have been saying does not properly belong in the upper divisions where they have been saying it, but belongs in a properly planned program of general education. But I should not like my remarks to be taken as essentially advocacy of any particular science in the making of a program of general education in the social studies.

I would think that the social studies would be doing their task not so badly if they developed the two elements of knowledge and capacity—history of Western civilization, and present-day problems—that are now stressed, and if to them they added, more effectively and explicitly than I think they now do, one more. This third element is the intensive acquaintance with the fact of integrated culture and the fact of human nature and if they developed upon this acquaintance a basic generalizing knowledge of society and human nature with some primary concepts for the description and further understanding of that subject matter. To bring about the better weaving of this third thread into the texture of general education in the social studies, I would hope for the power to plan the curriculum of the entire group of years devoted to general education as one task. For the improvement of the work of the earlier years, where acquaintance with culture and human nature is extended, I feel pretty strongly that the reading of much first-hand personal and humanist source materials is demanded. These, in my view, are to be read as they come to us in translation; they are to become source books, not textbooks; we must have the words in which people express themselves as they said or wrote them. The task of bringing these materials together will be a pleasant one; I hope I may join with you in performing it.



# Influencing Public Opinion Through School Activities

Laura M. Shufelt

**A**BRAM LINCOLN said, "With public sentiment, nothing can fail; without it, nothing can succeed." Public sentiment for the causes we think worth while cannot be taken for granted. The schools have often been accused of being their own worst publicity agents. Often we have assumed that if we do an efficient classroom and administrative job, this is enough. But it is not enough. The schools belong to the people. They depend upon the people for financial and moral support and for real cooperation and understanding.

The current publicity that teachers are getting in their drive for better salaries is helpful even when it takes the form of apologies from Fibber McGee to his old teacher for thinking she was cranky when she was only hungry! It is helpful because many teachers are for the first time aware of the need for public support and for really thinking about ways and means to influence public opinion. As some of us have undertaken to win and mobilize public opinion behind the move for greater financial support for education, we have been made aware that we are new hands at the task, inexpert to say the least. We have been forced to overcome a certain self-consciousness, a tendency to undersell our product. In one community, civic clubs were asked for support but the teachers hesitated to approach groups that were primarily social or fraternal—only to have them come to us for help in phrasing resolutions in our favor. At a public hearing of Governor Dewey's committee on school salaries, at which various civic associations, parents organizations, fraternal, labor, and other groups were heard, it was interesting that of all the proposals recommending salary ranges, the lowest was that presented by our teachers themselves through the State Teachers Association. Studies made in Massachusetts

and Pennsylvania show that teachers in these areas underrated their public, also. The teachers used the lack of public support as an excuse for not introducing progressive reforms in the school program, when opinion polls showed the public to be in favor of these changes.

**S**UCH instances demonstrate afresh that teachers and schools need two things: first, confidence in themselves and in what their schools are doing, and, second, greater interest and greater skill in dealing with their public. Schools have always been in the public eye, often, unfortunately, in the spirit of the title of an article I saw recently, "When in Doubt, Blame Education." But the whole field of scientific public-opinion research is comparatively new, and educational publicity as a systematic program to analyze and channel public opinion is little more than a decade old. There has been some research in the field on such subjects as what the people think about schools or about particular practices of schools. Some excellent school public-relations programs are in operation. But observation indicates that we are not doing the systematic, universal job of influencing public opinion that we might.

At the same time, however, there is an almost endless number of groups, both public and private, that are exerting pressure in their own very efficient public-relations programs. Newspaper chains, manufacturers' and other business groups, patriotic and super-patriotic societies, citizens' expenditure committees, and labor organizations are samples of these. Part of the task of the schools is to be aware of these other pressures, to measure their influence, to utilize those that are socially desirable and to attempt to neutralize the others. The school is certain to influence public opinion in many unorganized and incidental ways, just by its existence in the community, by teachers' contacts in community group life, and by the influence of children going from the schools into their homes and into other community groups. The more formal school pub-

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These practical and stimulating suggestions were presented at the Boston meeting of the National Council by a social studies teacher in the Hudson, New York, High School.

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licity program is a very complex subject and here we are considering only one phase of it—the influence of in-school civic activities in influencing public opinion.

**W**HAT are some of the attitudes that school civic groups and their advisers should try to produce in the public mind, and what are the opportunities they have to accomplish their aims? Perhaps it is well to agree, first, just what the "public" is that is to be reached by the civic group, whether it be a school newspaper staff, a school forum club, a student court, or the staff of a school bank. It may be all or part of the student body; under some circumstances it may be the school faculty and administration; or it may be some section of the public, such as the parents and friends of the students, some particular civic group, or perhaps the public at large—the news-reading public, the radio-listening public, the interviewees or others in direct contact with some civic function of the school. Naturally the attitude or opinion sought will vary, as will the action that we hope will be the result of the change or the confirmation of an attitude. The aim may vary all the way from improving social graces at school dances to the very large purpose of influencing community groups to support some national or international policy.

Generally speaking our greatest failure in influencing attitudes or opinions in all groups has been in the field of civic responsibility. In 1938, after an extensive testing program in New York State, the Regents' Inquiry concluded that "the boys and girls who are on the point of leaving school, whatever they may think about the desirability for civic cooperation, are reluctant to assume responsibility for civic cooperation or to commit themselves to action which will involve personal effort and sacrifice." There seems to be no reason for believing that this conclusion would be different if the study were repeated today. In fact, on some matters there may be even greater reluctance—certainly greater than in the war years—to do community service. And it goes without saying that civic responsibility or individual concern for group welfare is basic to almost every other desirable opinion, all the way from improved etiquette at school dances to attitudes of willingness to sacrifice for a great international cause, such as a prejudice-free, want-free, peaceful world.

**T**HIS development of civic responsibility is the major function of education. It is certainly one of the major functions of in-school civic ac-

tivities. Of these, there is an almost endless variety, but they may be roughly classified in three groups on the basis of their method of approach to their public. First, there is the group of activities that make use of written expression—school magazines and newspapers, yearbooks and handbooks, publicity clubs that work through the local press, and perhaps others. A second group works through oral expression, presenting programs, forums, assemblies, debates, pageants, radio programs, and so on. Finally, there are the service clubs that influence particularly by doing and by incidental publicity, oral or written or in pictures, either stills or movies. In the third group are clubs for ushering and hospitality; clubs for tutoring, sometimes an honor society activity; library service clubs; school beautification clubs, and clubs performing charities or other social services.

In all cases, if the object is the influencing of public opinion, there are several general suggestions that should be useful in making the campaign more effective.

1. Ascertain, informally or by more formal questionnaire or poll what existing opinion is. We frequently underestimate or overestimate both our student public and the general public.
2. Decide whether the aim sought is within the scope of activity of the group concerned or could be done better by some other agency.
3. Become familiar with what other groups are doing and with the overall public relations program of the school, and coordinate with it. Duplication of effort is wasteful.
4. Remember to combine accuracy of factual representation with humor, appeal to emotions, and skill in showmanship. Competition for the attention of the public has never been keener.
5. Be aware of existing helps: books, pamphlets, magazines. A book like Edward Bernays' *Speak Up for Democracy*,<sup>1</sup> or Benjamin Fine's *Educational Publicity*,<sup>2</sup> for example, or Harry C. McKown's *Home Room Guidance* or *The Student Council*,<sup>3</sup> to mention a few of many, may be helpful. In addition there are handbooks, yearbooks, and bulletins of professional groups, such as the National Society for the Study of Education, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the Department of Superintendence, or the Educational Policies Commission, and some earlier works such as *Learning the Ways of Democracy*<sup>4</sup> that are worth an occasional rereading.

<sup>1</sup> New York: Viking, 1940.

<sup>2</sup> New York: Harper, 1943.

<sup>3</sup> New York: McGraw-Hill, 1946; and 1944.

<sup>4</sup> Washington: Educational Policies Commission, 1940.

Helpful materials may be obtained from the Association for the United Nations, Bureau of Intercultural Education, and similar groups, whose new materials are announced in *Social Education* and other professional magazines. Among the magazines that are good sources of current practices are *Schools Activities*, *Clearing House*, *School Review*, *Review of Educational Research*, *Education*, and *The Nation's Schools*.

6. Keep posted on what is being done elsewhere to see if someone has an idea that you may use to fill your local need. For example, you might get a usable idea from reading about one junior high school class that made a movie of a typical school day and featured it at the commencement program. A movie of a school-award assembly is another idea.

Student editorials in local papers do not always win the fame they did for Jimmy Bright of Port Byron, New York, but they may serve your purpose. The editorial he wrote on the United Nations so impressed his community that he was sent to Lake Success under the auspices of the local paper and radio station. He came with questions from local bankers, merchants, and students and secured several exclusive interviews. Students in the Syracuse, New York, schools contributed a series of editorials published in the press of that city, also.

You may get a promising idea from reading how one school group is trying to increase respect for public property by developing a park near the school as a joint project with the local garden club. Accounts are carried of new ideas for pageants for Commencement or for some particular day, such as Pan American Day, Constitution Day, I Am An American Day, School-Community Day, or other special days and holidays. Ideas for radio programs, if you have a local station, and for simulated programs if you do not, may suggest ways to develop better listening attitudes in addition to the values in the performances themselves. Dramatizations that have been used in promoting better inter-group relations may suggest ideas for your own programs. A student cooperative cafeteria or store may be adapted to fit some local need.

Town meetings, listening clubs, leadership clubs, assembly training clubs, noon-hour recreation clubs, bulletin-board committees, student forums, special editions of school newspapers and magazines, housing surveys, broadcasts of class and school events, panel discussions for adult organizations in the community—these and many others have been tried and publicized. From the great variety of ideas in print, every school club

and adviser should discover some that are useful to themselves. Keeping posted by attendance at interschool or regional symposiums or conferences, such as the regional Scholastic Press Associations and Student Council Conferences and International Relations Club Conferences, may be equally effective.

7. Remember to try to measure the results of efforts to influence public opinion, using the evaluation as a guide to future programs. Since the purpose of most attitude changes is to change behavior, the test may be a pragmatic one, if the purpose is specific or limited. Some things we can evaluate. For example, when a Student Council recently conducted a brief but impressive campaign for keeping all drinking out of school dances, the next dance told the tale of its success. When the students in our local International Relations Club were asked to represent France at an interschool conference, there was no question about the change of their attitude toward doing a great deal of background study so as to be able to speak as Frenchmen and not as Americans. It is possible to observe and perhaps to measure the development of more critical attitudes toward films, the radio, and the printed page. Students may cease to be like a local editor's wife who doubted a remark he made at breakfast, but after he had run this remark in the afternoon edition apologized, commenting "You were right, dear. I read it in the paper."

In the case of a concerted campaign for a school or community improvement, if the improvement is made, the result is tangible. But many of the values and outcomes are of a deferred nature and perhaps too intangible to measure, or, if measured, too complex to attribute to any single cause. In these cases, real evaluation may be difficult or impossible, at least with existing instruments of measurement. There may be a danger in this: a danger that we may set our sights too low, and be content to emphasize the concrete, the short term, the simple aims that are easy to define and to measure, and to exclude larger aims.

As Miss Mary Kelty said in her presidential address to the National Council in 1945, "No one is wise enough to cut a perfect pattern from the seamless web of human experience, world wide and eternity deep, but some must be brave enough and perhaps foolhardy enough to try." And because this is a democracy where the many and not the few decide our policies, it is essential that in-school civic groups concern themselves with influencing public opinion in the direction of group responsibility for cutting a better pattern for a better world.



# Notes and News

## Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting St. Louis, November 27-29

The 1947 Meeting, which will be the Twenty-seventh Annual Convention of the National Council for the Social Studies, will be held in St. Louis, November 27-29. The Hotel Jefferson will be the headquarters for all convention activities. Registration will open at 10 A.M. on November 27. A large attendance, with representation of all sections of the country and of most local councils, is anticipated.

Stanley E. Dimond, first vice-president of the NCSS, is chairman of the Program Committee. D. E. Hussong of Hanley Jr. High School, University City, Missouri, is chairman and Dorothy Pauls, St. Louis, is vice-chairman of the Local Arrangements Committee.

*Educating for World Citizenship* will be the theme of the convention. The program will open with a reception on Thursday afternoon. At the Thursday evening meeting a report of the United States Social Studies Committee will be made by the members of the committee who went on the Education Mission to Germany in February, 1947. The Annual Banquet on Friday evening will be addressed by outstanding speakers from UNESCO. The work and plans of UNESCO will be reviewed, and the latest reports on developments from the Mexico City meeting of UNESCO, which will be taking place at the same time as the NCSS meeting, will be presented.

A widely diversified program with outstanding speakers has been planned to offer teachers help with present-day problems. An opportunity to visit the historic and scenic spots will be provided. There will be an extensive exhibit of educational materials of special interest to social studies teachers. Further details about the meetings will appear in the November issue of *Social Education*.

**Hotel Accommodations**—A number of rooms in the Hotel Jefferson have been reserved for use by the NCSS members attending the meeting. Reservation cards will be mailed to Council members, with a copy of the program, early in November. Rates on single rooms are \$3.50 to \$6.00 per day; double rooms, \$5.00 to \$8.00 per day. All reservations should be made directly with the hotel.

## Taking Over after Erling Hunt

This is the first issue of *Social Education* not edited by Erling M. Hunt, and the first issue of this magazine was published in January 1937.<sup>1</sup> It was ten years and four issues later that the Editor announced his retirement.

The best record of Erling Hunt's achievement as Editor is written in the files of the magazine which today ranks high among professional journals. To him goes the credit for a vigorous and intelligent editorial policy, for the high quality of published material, and for the establishment of many helpful departments. The Executive Board of *Social Education* and all members of the National Council and other readers of the magazine join in a hearty "thank you" to Erling Hunt for able leadership and for his untiring efforts in our behalf.

When the Executive Board of the magazine learned of the Editor's decision to retire, the Chairman of that Board appointed a committee<sup>2</sup> to find a successor to Erling Hunt and also a new editorial office for the magazine. Both were difficult assignments. The basic decision the committee had to make was whether the Council financially could afford to consolidate the editorial functions of the magazine and of other publications under a full-time Editor in the Washington office. Despite the advantages of consolidation the committee reluctantly abandoned this plan because it was unable to find a qualified full-time Editor willing to work for the salary the Council was able to pay.

Several universities have expressed an interest in providing an editorial office for *Social Education*, and a choice among them still has to be made in terms of advantages offered. Meanwhile

<sup>1</sup> On August 15, 1936, Erling M. Hunt had succeeded the late William G. Kimmel as Editor of *The Social Studies*, then published under the authority of the American Historical Association, with the cooperation of the National Council for the Social Studies, the American Political Science Association and the American Sociological Society. Because the National Council felt it should own its journal, the Council and the American Historical Association later cooperated in the establishment of the new magazine, *Social Education*.

<sup>2</sup> Mary G. Kelty, Chairman, Chester McA. Destler and Allen Y. King. Erling M. Hunt, Merrill F. Hartshorn, and Howard R. Anderson have also served in an advisory capacity.

Ralph A. Brown, the Assistant Editor, has served as Acting Editor since Erling Hunt's retirement on July 1, 1947. Before assuming his duties as a member of the staff of New York State Teachers College in Cortland, Ralph Brown prepared for the press the materials in this issue as well as those to be included in the November issue. L. Paul Todd of the State Teachers College, Danbury, Connecticut will, as Acting Editor, assume editorial responsibility for the magazine with the December issue.

The Executive Board greatly appreciates the loyal and effective services of Ralph Brown as Assistant Editor and as Acting Editor during the interim period, and wishes him well in his new position. The Board also is greatly indebted to Paul Todd for his willingness, under somewhat difficult circumstances, to assume full editorial responsibility after Ralph Brown's retirement. We trust that it shall soon be possible to reach a decision with respect to a permanent editorial office for *Social Education*.

HOWARD R. ANDERSON  
*Chairman, Executive Board*

### Indiana

The Indiana Council for the Social Studies held its annual spring meeting at the Lincoln Hotel in Indianapolis on March 22. The following officers were elected for 1947-48: S. H. Engle, Indiana University, president; Miss Frankie Jones, La Porte High School, vice-president; Mrs. Opal Humphries Endicott, Jamestown, secretary; John Bremer, Rushville High School, treasurer. Board members for 1947-48 are Frank H. Gorman, Butler University; Dorothea Kirk, Indianapolis; John H. Clevenger, Marion; Curtis Weigel, Indianapolis; and Robert H. Plummer, Purdue University.

During the past summer the Indiana Council sponsored three workshops. A conference on state and local government was held at Butler University from June 16 to June 20. This workshop was under the direction of Frank H. Gorman of Butler University and had as its consultant Howard R. Anderson, Specialist in Social Studies of the U.S. Office of Education, who addressed the conference on June 18 and 19.

A workshop to deal with curriculum problems in the elementary social studies was held at Ball State Teachers College from June 9 to July 11. This workshop was under the direction of Robert LaFollette of Ball State Teachers College and Angie Wilson of Burriss Laboratory School, Muncie, with Myrtelle Meyers of the Fort Wayne

Public Schools participating as consultant.

A third workshop and conference, held at Indiana University from June 20 to July 2, dealt with curriculum problems and trends in the secondary social studies. This workshop was under the direction of Shirley H. Engle, Indiana University, with Professor Harold C. Hand, University of Illinois as consultant. Dr. Hand developed the theme of the conference, "Imperatives in the Secondary Social Studies," in two addresses which he gave at the opening sessions on June 21 and 22.

### Iowa

The Iowa Council of the Social Studies met in conjunction with the Twenty-fifth Annual Conference of the Teachers of History and the Social Studies at the University of Iowa, at Iowa City, on Friday and Saturday, April 18 and 19. At the luncheon session on Friday, W. Francis English, University of Missouri, addressed the Council on the topic "There Are Things Which We Can Do." In this talk he suggested aims and methods which might be followed by a local or state council. John Haefner of the University of Iowa, who had just returned from Germany after two months' work on the Educational Advisory Council, spoke briefly on the physical needs of German schools and teacher training institutions at the present time. Dr. Erma Plaehn of Iowa State Teachers College, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Iowa Council, presided at the luncheon meeting.

### Syracuse University

The Thirteenth Annual Series of Educational Conferences held under the auspices of the School of Education, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, on July 24 to 26, 1947, included an all-day session on the social studies. At the morning session, chaired by Roy A. Price, Howard R. Anderson addressed the group on "The Teaching of International Understanding." In the afternoon, Richard K. Burkhardt was chairman and there were two addresses: Loretta Klee on the "Twelfth Grade Social Studies Program," and Ignatius D. Taubeneck on "A Program for the Study of American Civilization."

### Oregon Geography Council

The Fall Conference of the Oregon Geography Council will be held at the Memorial Union Building, Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon, on Saturday, October 4, 1947. There will be

morning and afternoon sessions, with a dinner meeting in the evening.

### National Council of Geography Teachers

The National Council of Geography Teachers will hold its annual meeting in Charlottesville, Virginia, on December 27, 28 and 29. The general theme of the programs will be: Functions of Geographic Instruction. One of the highlights of the meeting will be an all-day field trip through the Piedmont and Blue Ridge mountains, to be followed by a buffet supper scheduled to take place at the Colonnade Club.

### Freedom Train

On September 17, a "Freedom Train" carrying an original copy of the Constitution of the United States, together with 149 other important documents of American history, began a "year of rededication" tour of the country. The starting point for the eight-car, red-white-and-blue train was Independence Hall in Philadelphia. During its year of travel the train will stop in all sections of the country. The purpose is to recall to students their great heritage and the privileges they enjoy under that heritage.

This tour of historically famous documents offers a unique opportunity for social studies teachers throughout the nation. They should be alert for information about the route of the train, and for opportunities to relate the documents to their classroom teaching.

### Illinois Council

The Illinois Council for the Social Studies held a regional meeting in Decatur on April 26, with the Decatur Council for the Social Studies acting as host. The opening session, chaired by John Perkins, Decatur Senior High School, was addressed by Isobel Blair, exchange teacher from England, on "Comparison of Social Studies in England and America." This was followed by a panel discussion on "What Are the Schools of Illinois Teaching to Prepare for World Citizenship?" This panel discussion was based on findings secured by questionnaires sent out to 150 schools in Illinois. Gertrude Hill, Decatur Senior High School, served as chairman of the panel, with Mildred Price of Decatur representing the elementary schools, Helen Williams of Decatur representing the junior high schools, Melvin Matthew of Decatur representing the

senior high school, and Lena Ellington, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, speaking for teacher preparation. At the afternoon session Raymond Plath, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, spoke on "World Trade and World Peace."

### Junior Historians

The first annual state-wide convention of the junior members of the New York State Historical Association, meeting in Albany on May 10, 1947, drew 649 student delegates representing thirty-six of the Association's sixty-one junior chapters. The morning meeting of the conference, presided over by Mary E. Cunningham, association supervisor of school services, convened at Chancellor's Hall of the New York State Education Building where brief talks were given by the Hon. Erastus P. Corning, 2nd, Mayor of Albany; Albert B. Corey, state historian; Carl E. Guthe, director of the State Museum; and Charles F. Gosnell, state librarian. Four junior Yorkers gave brief papers all centering around the theme of the New York State Constitution of 1847, and the morning session concluded with a series of one-minute reports from each chapter represented. The delegates then toured the State Capitol, State Education Building and the Albany Institute of History and Art.

Reconvening after lunch at Columbia High School, East Greenbush, the convention discussed plans for closer cooperation between the various junior chapters, with Luita T. Jones, Farmingdale Chapter sponsor, as discussion leader. Awards for the best historical exhibits on display at the convention were made and the winners of the "Who's Who Among Yorkers" certificates for 1947 were announced. First initiated two years ago, this "Who's Who" panel is now a yearly feature of the Association program and excites keen interest and effective work among junior historians of New York. The convention closed with tours of Fort Crailo in Rensselaer, where *Yankee Doodle* was written, and the Philip Schuyler Mansion in Albany.

### Terre Haute

The Terre Haute Council for the Social Studies met on May 19. Ethel Ray as chairman of the Program Committee made the arrangements for the meeting. Shirley Engle, Indiana University, chaired the meeting at which Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, spoke on "Education for International Understanding."



## Minnesota Council

The Minnesota Council for the Social Studies met on the campus of the University of Minnesota, March 14 and 15, for their Annual Spring Conference. A highlight of the Conference was a dinner meeting at which three outstanding authorities on United States-Russia relations vigorously answered the question: "Are We Baiting or Appeasing Russia?" Topics discussed at other meetings included: teaching state and local history, curriculum revision in the social studies, world affairs in the school program, and the social studies teacher.

J. W. Opheim of Rochester was elected president for the coming year. Beulah Buswell, Austin, was named vice-president and membership committee chairman. Secretary-Treasurer will be Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota. Membership in the Council now exceeds 450.

Headline attractions at the Conference were the discussion and adoption of twenty-three resolutions in which the members of the Council took a positive stand on several issues of major social importance. Among the resolutions passed were the following:

1. We commend those administrators and school boards who have raised teachers' salaries. We urge further raises, not only to bring payments into line with inflated prices, but also that teachers salaries be raised to a professional level.
2. We condemn the niggardly supply of books, maps and other teaching materials which characterizes the typical Minnesota school. Economy in such equipment is achieved at the expense of the boys and girls.
3. We urge the inclusion in school programs of more content on world affairs, with particular attention to the United Nations and other topics promotive of world peace.
4. We favor lowering the voting age to 18. Thus citizenship training would have immediate pertinency.
5. We oppose peace time conscription because it is a military delusion, because it demonstrates a distrust of the United Nations, and because it is a wasteful use of human resources.
6. We denounce the widespread but numerous efforts which seem designed, wittingly or unwittingly, to disrupt peaceful relations between the United States and Russia.
7. We condemn the efforts of those Congressmen who are trying to raise tariffs and thus prevent recovery in foreign lands, restrict our foreign markets, and awaken hostilities which can only end in another world war.
8. We oppose the reduction of federal taxes until a substantial portion of the federal debt has been paid. If reductions are to be made, however, we urge that a slid-

ing scale, rather than a flat percentage, be adopted as the formula for reductions.

## Resolutions Invited

The Resolutions Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies invites members who have suggestions for resolutions to be submitted at the business meeting, to be held in connection with the Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting on November 28 in St. Louis, to send them to Helen McCracken Carpenter, State Teachers College, Trenton 5, New Jersey. Suggestions should be submitted by November 1 so that they may receive careful consideration by the Resolutions Committee.

## In Other Magazines

The April and May issues of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* should be of more than usual interest to social studies teachers. Phillips Bradley was the special editor of the April issue, titled "Industrial Relations and Education." The titles of the section headings indicate the scope of the issue: Public Education and Industrial Relations, Higher Education and Industrial Relations, University Extension and Industrial Relations, Union Views of Educational Services, Management Attitudes Toward Industrial-Relations Training, Educational Agencies and Projects in Industrial Relations.

The May issue, prepared by members of the Faculty of the School of Education, New York University, is devoted to the social studies. The titles of the articles are as follows: The Problems Approach to the Social Studies; A Social Studies Department Studies the Curriculum; a Philosophy for Social Studies in the Colleges; Materials for Student Use in Social Studies Courses in Junior Colleges; The Man in Front of the Room; International Education as an Aid to World Peace; One Step Toward One World; and Recent Bibliography on International Affairs.

Social studies teachers may be interested in two articles that appeared in the summer number of *The American Scholar*: Richard Chase's discussion of "Toynbee: The Historian As Artist," and James Marshall's "Freud and Marx at UNESCO."

# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Ralph Adams Brown

## American Education Fellowship

The Service Center Pamphlets of the American Education Fellowship, published by Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc. (105 Fifth Avenue, New York 3), include a number that should be of interest to our readers. Unless a price is stated, directly after the title, it is 25 cents:

Arndt and Bowles, *Parents, Teachers and Youth Build Together*.

Bostwick and Ried, *A Functional High School Curriculum*. (35 cents).

Benedict, *Dare Our Secondary Schools Face the Atomic Age?*

Diederich and Van Til, *The Workshop*.

Witty and LaBrant, *Teaching the People's Language*.

Fenner, *The Library in the Elementary School*.

Koopman, *Utilizing the Local Environment*.

Lomax and Cowell, *American Folk Song and Folk Lore*.

Martin, *Know Your Child; Characteristics and Guidance of Children on Various Age Levels*.

Mitchell and others, *Youth Has a Part to Play; 167 Examples of Youth Service to the Community*.

The same publishers offer Theodore Brameld's *Design for America; An Educational Exploration of the Future of Democracy* (\$2.00). This is an account of how 50 students in a small rural high school attempted to answer the question: "What kind of society do we as young citizens want to build for tomorrow?"

## UNESCO

The Public Affairs Press (2153 Florida Avenue, Washington 8) offers copies of a new and important publication about UNESCO for one dollar. It is written by Julian Huxley, the Director General, and is titled *UNESCO: Its Purpose and Its Philosophy*. There are two sections, the first discussing "A Background for UNESCO," and the second "The Program of UNESCO."

## Minnesota

*Minnesota Under Four Flags* (Minnesota Historical Society, St. Paul, 50 cents) is an attractive booklet showing the development of Minnesota in a set of 15 outline maps. A brief paragraph of text accompanies each map.

## The National Planning Association

The National Planning Association, 800 21st St., N.W., Washington 6, publishes various types of materials of interest and value to social studies

teachers. The latest number in their Planning Pamphlets series is David Ginsburg's *The Future of German Reparations* (50 cents). It is pretty difficult for general student use, on the high school level, but should be of value for assigned reading or teacher-led discussion.

## Radio Scripts

The World Wide Broadcasting Foundation which operates station WRUL, is a non-profit, non-commercial organization. Scripts of its "Beyond Victory" program are available for 10 cents each or \$5.00 for a year's subscription. At the present time the following are available:

- Problems in the Pacific
  - Political Structure of the Japanese State
  - Japan's Educational System
  - Japan—Its Islands and Their People
  - Philippines—Key to Peace in the Pacific
- Problems Elsewhere
  - Cultural Relations Among the Nations
  - The St. Lawrence Waterway—A Postwar Problem
  - Report on UNRRA
- Atomic Energy—Its Control and Constructive Use
  - The Challenge of Atomic Energy
  - Can the United Nations Control Atomic Energy?
  - A Scientist Looks at Atomic Energy
  - Atomic Power Plants of the Future
  - Inside the Atom
  - The Atom—Challenge to Science
- The UN Begins Its Work
  - The United Nations Assembly Meets
  - Issues That Face the United Nations
  - World of the Air Age
  - A Review of the United Nations Organization
  - The United Nations and Special Agencies
- Our Allies in the United Nations
  - The Hardships of Victory—England Today
  - Russia and the United States—Can We Understand Each Other?
  - France—Our Ally in War and Peace
  - Life in China Today
- Problems of World Trade
  - Anglo-American Trade Relations
  - What World Trade Means to You
  - American Prosperity and Foreign Trade
  - Planning an International Trade Organization
  - International Commerce and the United Nations

## League for Industrial Democracy

The advisability of using controversial materials in the classroom is a moot point. The question was discussed, in some detail, in this department last December. It was noted then that

"Increasingly, it seems, the citizens of a democracy must be capable of seeing through the biased approaches to national as well as individual problems, of weighing *all* evidence in a critical manner, and of coming to well founded conclusions."

In the light of the above philosophy, various publications of the League for Industrial Democracy (112 East 19th Street, New York 3) are listed and recommended for purchase and use by teachers concerned with the topics covered. The League has had, over the years, the support of an eminently "respectable" group of Americans: John Dewey, John Haynes Holmes, Francis J. McConnell, Alexander Meiklejohn, Stuart Chase, and Norman Thomas are examples. Teachers who use these materials should, however, be aware of the fact that this organization is socialistic in its philosophy. About a decade ago it published the following, as descriptive of its philosophy and activity:

The League for Industrial Democracy is a membership society engaged in education toward a social order based on production for use and not for profit. To this end the League conducts research, lecture and information services, suggests practical plans for increasing social control, organizes city chapters, publishes books and pamphlets on problems of industrial democracy, and sponsors conferences, forums, luncheon discussions and radio talks in leading cities where it has chapters.

More recently it has announced its object as: "Education for Increasing Democracy in Our Economic, Political and Cultural Life."

The following pamphlets may be obtained from the New York office:

- The Middle Class and Organized Labor*, by Robert Morse Lovett. (10 cents).
- Thirty-five Years of Educational Pioneering—And A Look Ahead*, by John Dewey, Jonathan Daniels & Others. (10 cents).
- A Program for Labor and Progressives*. (25 cents).
- The League for Industrial Democracy—Forty Years of Education*; a symposium by Upton Sinclair and others. (25 cents).
- Postwar Planning for Peace and Full Employment*. (25 cents).
- What is Folksocialism? A Critical Analysis*, by Paul Sering. (25 cents).
- The Case for Socialism*. By Fred Henderson. (35 cents).
- The Role of the Races in Our Future Civilization*. (50 cents).
- The Third Freedom: Freedom from Want*, edited by Harry W. Laidler. (50 cents).

The following are all 15 cents each:

- The Atomic Age: Suicide, slavery or social planning?* by Aaron Levenstein.
- Recent Trends in British Trade Unionism*, by Noel Barou.
- Public Debt and Taxation in the Postwar World*, by William Withers.
- Canadian Progressives on the March; the story of the rise of the C. C. F.*, by M. J. Coldwell, M.P.

*The Caribbean: Laboratory of World Cooperation*, by Devere Allen.

*British Labor on Reconstruction in War and Peace*.

*Maximum Production: Warfare and Welfare*.

*The Intelligent Consumer's Guide to Hospital and Medical Plans*, by Harold Maslow.

*Workers' Education Today*, by Mark Starr.

*Health Security for the Nation*, by John A. Kingsbury.

*Toward a Farmer-Labor Party*, by Harry W. Laidler.

*Democracy versus Dictatorship*, by Norman Thomas.

*Rich Land, Poor Land*, by Stuart Chase. This is a 27-page summary of Mr. Chase's book by the same name. Valuable for classes studying conservation.

*The Consumer Cooperative Movement; a social interpretation*, by Harry W. Laidler.

## Woodrow Wilson Foundation

The Woodrow Wilson Foundation (45 East 65th Street, New York 21) is one of the organizations with which teachers of world history and problems of democracy, and to a slightly lesser extent all social studies teachers, should keep in touch. Some of the publications currently available from this foundation are:

*The Lost Peace, A Chronology: The League of Nations and the United States Senate, 1918-1921*. Compiled by Frank Barth. (10 cents).

*The Politics of Atomic Energy*. (10 cents).

*The First Hundred Days of the Atomic Age*, August 6-November 15, 1945, edited by Sydnor H. Walker. (20 cents).

*World Organization; An Annotated Bibliography*. Prepared by Hans Aufricht. (Free).

*The Story of Woodrow Wilson*, by David Loth. (Free).

*The Bretton Woods Proposals; a reading list*. (Free).

*How the United Nations Will Work*. (Free).

*The Meaning of Dumbarton Oaks*, by Raymond B. Fossdick. (Free).

*Our Sovereignty: Shall We Use It?* by Wendell L. Willkie. (Free).

*Crimea Conference Report*. (Free).

*Texts of Official Documents Issued During the Two World Wars*. (Free).

## World Affairs

The Melberg Press, Morehead, Minnesota, has published ten pamphlets, each prepared by Dr. Joseph Kise, Professor of Social Studies in the Morehead State Teachers College. These are sold only in quantities of five or more, at 20 cents each.

*This World in Which We Live*.

*How the People of the World Are Governed*.

*How the United States Conducts Its Relations with Foreign Countries*.

*The Foreign Service of the United States*.

*International Treaties*.

*Six Methods of Settling International Disputes*.

*Arbitration as a Means of Settling International Conflicts*.

*Causes, Costs, and Consequences of War*.

*The United Nations Charter*.

*The Law of Nations in the Postwar World*.



# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## Films for World History

For a long time the teachers of world history have felt the need for motion pictures which would help to dramatize and vitalize their teaching. The producers of classroom films have offered little of value in this area because of the prohibitive cost of sets and skilled actors. At the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, held in Boston last November, it was suggested that the Audio-Visual Aids Committee approach the Hollywood producers to investigate the possibilities of editing some of the fine feature films with historical content and making them available to classrooms in abbreviated versions.

Teaching Films Custodians, the educational liaison division of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, became enthusiastic about the idea, and the project was commenced early this year. A special sub-committee of the Audio-Visual Committee has worked closely with TFC, and to date four films have been edited for world history. The ancient period is represented by a 35-minute version of *Cleopatra*, emphasizing the imperialistic aspects of Rome's relations with Egypt. In the medieval period, a shortened version of *The Crusades* has been edited and is now ready for distribution. This film really makes the period of the Crusades live. Two films are being prepared for the modern period: *The House of Rothschild*, showing the rise of international banking and the pogroms against the Jews; and *Conquest*, the story of Napoleon's disastrous Russian campaign. Also available through Teaching Films Custodians is a film on the French Revolution, *The Tale of Two Cities*.

All of the above films have been edited in such a fashion as to make them suitable for classroom use. They have been reduced to 30- to 40-minute lengths; the romance, except where essential to the historical concepts, has been largely eliminated; and historical inaccuracies are either cut out or explained in subtitles. For further information concerning purchase or rental of these films, write to Teaching Films Custodians, 25 West 43rd Street, New York, New York.

## Guide to Free Films

Many schools round out their film programs with selected free films. Finding the film best suited to one's purpose is not easy if one must rely upon the separate catalogs of the large number of free film distributors. Fortunately, a general guide to free films is available. Now in its seventh edition, the *Educator's Guide to Free Films* (Randolph, Wisconsin: Educator's Progress Service, 1947), lists 1,755 motion pictures and 174 slide films. Each film is listed by title, size, length, running time, terms of loan, and the contents are briefly described. *Educator's Guide to Free Films* brings the busy teacher a complete, up-to-date, organized file of information on a wealth of valuable teaching material. The cost of the volume is \$5.00.

## Motion Picture News

*School Films* is the name of a new quarterly of classroom visual materials. The first issue will appear in November. Copies are twenty-five cents each; order from School Films, 6060 Sunset Boulevard, Hollywood 28, California.

Write to Modern Talking Picture Service, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York, for a copy of "Free Motion Pictures from Industry," a list of films useful in many aspects of the social studies.

A brochure outlining a "Suggested Plan for a Classroom Motion Picture Clinic" is distributed free by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois. Included are excellent bibliographical guides to film evaluation and utilization.

*Man—One Family*, the 16 mm. sound motion picture made by Julian Huxley for the British Information Service, is now available in a new American sound track. The original narration was found to be difficult for Americans to understand. This film has become extremely popular with forum groups and others interested in education for intergroup understanding. Information concerning rental sources may be obtained from Film Publishers, Inc., 25 Broad Street, New York 4, New York.

A "Catalog of Co-op Films and Recordings" is being distributed by National Cooperatives

Inc., 167 West 12th Street, New York 20, N.Y.

The Bureau for Intercultural Education (1697 Broadway, New York 19) offers a new list of films entitled *Films in Intercultural Education*. The price is 10 cents.

Movies, photographic slides and exhibits on various aspects of rehabilitation work throughout the world may be obtained on free loan from American Friends Service Committee, 20 South 12th Street, Philadelphia 7. Write for a list of the available materials.

### Recent 16mm. Films

American Relief for Czechoslovakia Inc., 1819 Broadway, New York 23.

*Czechoslovakia Comes Back*. 18 minutes. Sound. Free. Need for rehabilitation in Czechoslovakia, the work which is going forward.

Lloyd's Film Storage Corp., 729 Seventh Ave., New York 19.

*South America, Ancient and Modern*. 15 minutes. Sound. Free. Traces a trip from New York to Chile via the Panama Canal.

Gateway Productions Inc., 49 Main St., San Francisco. (For rental rates contact your local film library.)

*The Junior Citizen*. 20 minutes. Sound. Sale: \$90.00. Sharing a common understanding, fitting into our economic life, conserving our natural resources, conserving our human resources.

Film Publishers, Inc., 25 Broad St., New York 4.

*Operation Underground*. 20 minutes. Sound. Sale \$80.00. How allied aviators were rescued and smuggled out of France.

International Film Bureau, 84 Randolph St., Chicago 1, Illinois. International Film Bureau Inc. has acquired the exclusive United States 16mm. rights to five color sound films from the National Film Board of Canada. 22 minutes each. Rental \$5.00. Purchase price \$150.

*Great Lakes*. The Great Lakes lie in one of the greatest industrial regions on earth, with an immense amount of diversified cargo pouring along some of the world's busiest shipping lanes. The shipping theme is used to link short sequences on steel production, pulpmaking, shipbuilding, grain storage and the workings of canals and locks.

*Fur Country*. The camera follows an Indian trapper on one of his periodic visits to his trapline in the region of James Bay. Winter travel by sled and snow-shoe; camping in the snow; various ways of setting traps and the best way to dry a pelt are all shown.

*Eskimo Arts and Crafts*. Arts and crafts are an essential part of the life of Baffinland Eskimos. Their kayaks are marvels of craftsmanship and speed. Their decorated skin garments, carved ivory, and hand-wrought implements are products of traditional skill, and their legends, drumming, dancing, and singing have been handed down for generations.

*Eskimo Summer*. The Arctic summer is short and the Eskimo cannot afford to waste a day of it if he is to provide food and fuel enough for the long winter. The men trap and spear fish and hunt whales, seals, polar bears

and walrus. The women prepare the food and make clothing. Whale oil and blubber are stored to provide fuel and light in the long winter.

*Montreal*. Montreal is the largest and one of the most historic cities of Canada. This film shows the celebration of its tercentenary, some of its historic streets and buildings and the life of the city today: the business section, the two universities, the Art Gallery, the airport, the railways and wharves.

New York University Films Library, Washington Square, New York 3.

*Tuesday in November*. 20 minutes. Sound. Rental \$2. How elections are conducted in the United States. The function of political parties, election campaigns, the secret ballot. Originally produced to show people in occupied countries the meaning of free democratic elections.

United States Department of the Interior, Graphic Services Section, Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13.

*Oklahoma and Its Natural Resources*. 30 minutes. Sound. Free. Traces the colorful history of the state and the development of its rich natural resources. Among the industries shown are glass-making, petroleum, pottery, coal mining, limestone production, zinc and lead mining.

Indiana Limestone Institute, Bedford, Indiana.

*Indiana Limestone*. 25 minutes. Sound. Free. Actual quarry and mill scenes along with photographs of many fine buildings over the country demonstrates the adaptability of limestone to all types of construction.

American Bankers Association, 200 Madison Ave., New York 16.

*Bill Bailey and the Four Pillars*. 18 minutes. Sound. Free. How a banker set out to win conservative tobacco farmers over to a rotation of crops.

March of Time Forum Edition, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17.

*The New France*. 17 minutes. Sound. Rental: 3-year lease, \$35. The French struggle to rebuild their country physically and economically.

*Tomorrow's Mexico*. 17 minutes. Sound. Rental: 3-year lease, \$35. Mexico from the revolution of 1910 to its industrial expansion during World War II.

*The American Cop*. 18 minutes. Sound. Rental: 3-year lease, \$35. The work and importance of the policeman in America.

Coronet Instructional Films, 919 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago 11.

*Sharing Economic Risks*. 10 minutes. Sound. Rental: apply. Clarifies the risk concept and develops a sound understanding of insurance terms, types, and fundamentals.

*Political Parties*. 10 minutes. Sound. Rental: apply. Depicts the establishment and maintenance of the machinery which presents a choice to the voter.

*What Is Money?* 10 minutes. Sound. Rental: apply. Follows the daily travel of a five dollar bill, and in showing the evolution of present monetary standards from primitive barter, explains what money is, and why and how it meets an economy's need.

### Radio Notes

Now is the time to develop good radio listening habits with students. The following NBC

programs are especially worth recommending. All times listed are Eastern Standard Time. Consult the radio listings in your newspaper for local broadcasting time.

#### SUNDAY

1:30- 2:00 P.M. University of Chicago Round Table

#### MONDAY

7:15- 7:30 P.M. News of the World  
8:00- 8:30 P.M. Cavalcade of America

#### TUESDAY

7:15- 7:30 P.M. News of the World

#### WEDNESDAY

7:15- 7:30 P.M. News of the World  
11:30-12:00 P.M. Your United Nations

#### THURSDAY

7:15- 7:30 P.M. News of the World

#### FRIDAY

7:15- 7:30 P.M. News of the World  
11:30-12:00 P.M. American Novels

#### SATURDAY

9:30-10:00 A.M. Coffee with Congress  
5:00- 5:30 P.M. The American World  
7:00- 7:30 P.M. Our Foreign Policy

Write to American Education Press, Inc., 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio, for bulletins on "How to Organize a Junior Town Meeting Program for Classroom, Auditorium, and Radio."

*Radio Broadcasting and Television: An Annotated Bibliography* by Oscar Rose, published by The H. W. Wilson Co., 950-972 University Ave., New York 52, will prove valuable to students and teachers doing research in radio. Price \$1.50 per copy.

"Liberty Road," a new dramatic program examining basic human rights and responsibilities as understood and practiced in different parts of the world, will take its place as the Monday series on CBS' *School of the Air* which opens its 18th consecutive season on the Columbia network, October 6 at 5:00 to 5:30 P.M., EST. Other programs in the *School of the Air* series are: Tuesdays, "Gateway to Music," Wednesdays, "The March of Science," Thursdays, "Tales of Adventure," Fridays, "Opinion Please." Write to the Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Ave., New York 22 for a copy of the manual listing all programs.

## Filmstrips

Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 22 East 38th St., New York 16.

*Your Stake in Collective Bargaining*. \$2.50. 51 frames. With accompanying script. The effect on the public of the day-to-day workings of collective bargaining is emphasized throughout the film's lively picture story.

Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio St., Chicago 11. A new textbook-filmstrip correlation program is being developed by SVE and the Row, Peterson and Silver Burdett Companies. Write for a complete list of subjects.

Telefilm Corporation, 12 East 44th St., New York 17.

*Through China's Gateway*. \$12.50. Series of five strips. Single \$2.50. Sound strips \$7.50 each. Titles include (1) *In the Chinese Manner*, (2) *China's Children*, (3) *Food for China*, (4) *A Nation of Scholars*, (5) *China's Tomorrow*.

The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11.

*Our Earth*. Kit of five discussional filmstrips. Price: apply. Subjects in the kit are: (1) *How We Think Our Earth Came to Be*, (2) *The World Is Changing*, (3) *How Rocks Are Formed*, (4) *The Story of the Earth We Find in the Rocks*, (5) *The Soil*.

United Nations Department of Public Information, Film Section, Lake Success, New York.

*The United Nations at Work: The Secretariat*. Free to schools. Illustrates purpose, structure and function of the United Nations with detailed study of the Secretariat.

Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, Grand Rapids 2, Michigan. A complete series of filmstrips which sell at \$2.50 each, or complete set of 15 films with manuals, cabinet and index, \$37.50. Titles are: *Colonial America*, *Pioneer Days*, *Indian Life*, *Community Life*, *Man on Record*, *Clothing and Textiles*, *Transportation*, *Early Civilization*, *Ancient Rome*, *Ancient Greece*, *Knighthood*, *Voyage and Discovery*, *Americans All*, *The Farm*, *Christmas*.

## Records

Your local record dealer now has an album produced by Decca called "Our Common Heritage." The voices of Bing Crosby, Brian Donlevy, Walter Huston, Fredric March, Agnes Moorehead, and Pat O'Brien bring to the listener excerpts from the pens of Longfellow, Whitman, Holmes, Markham, Emerson, Whittier, Key, Lindsay, and others. The theme throughout is our heritage to the past. Here is a stirring recital of the past deeds of our history told in the great words of our national literature. Among the selections are "Paul Revere's Ride," "Warren's Address to the American Soldiers," "Concord Hymn," "Barbara Frietchie," "Sheridan's Ride," "Old Ironsides," "O Captain! My Captain!," "Abraham Lincoln Walks at Midnight," and "Nancy Hanks." The album retails at \$10.

By special arrangement with the National



Broadcasting Company, the radio programs "Tales of the Foreign Service" are now available in recorded form from the Script and Transcription Exchange, Federal Radio Education Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D.C. A special grant of funds from the Carnegie Corporation to the F.R.E.C. makes it possible to offer the recordings to schools on free loan for restricted use in classrooms and over public address systems. The selected 15 episodes illustrate a variety of different situations which have been faced and met by members of the foreign service. Five of these programs deal with the training and duties of Foreign Service officers. Programs are recorded on 16-inch discs and require special playback equipment.

### Teaching Aids for the Air Age

Air-Age Education Research, 80 East 42nd St., New York 17, will send upon request a copy of "Teaching Aids for Air Age Education." This catalog of free and inexpensive teaching aids and services is designed to help teachers introduce modern problems of the Air Age. Among the materials described in this catalog are "Air-Age Picture Portfolios," each consisting of 10 aerial photographs each 8 by 10 inches in size. The portfolios cover the topics of "Transportation," "Communities," and "A Trip to the Airport," and cost 25 cents each. Other aids listed include globes, maps, motion pictures, filmstrips, charts, textbooklets, lithograph prints, and "Teachers' Collection of Air-Age Visual Aids."

### Maps

An inexpensive type of map mounting is offered by the George F. Cram Co., Inc., 730 East Washington St., Indianapolis 7, Indiana. The "Straight-Roll Multi-Map" mounts up to 18 maps on a single roller. A set of 18 maps on this mounting costs \$65; for smaller sets deduct

\$2.65 for each map less than 18. A full size wall map, 52 by 90 inches, at \$2.65 is a bargain in these times of inflated prices. Selections may be made from 32 American history maps or 42 world history maps.

A special booklet on "Outline Maps" may be had for the asking from A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago 18. Described are special history desk maps, paper wall outline maps, and blackboard wall outline maps.

Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40, are the official distributors of the "Westminster Bible Wall Maps." These maps of the world in biblical days come in two sizes, 23½ by 30 inches and 44 by 61 inches. The colors are especially attractive and eye-catching. The large maps with plain wood rods at top and bottom are \$8.25 each. The small maps, tinned at top and bottom, are \$2 each.

### Apparatus for the Classroom

The Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio St., Chicago 11, now manufactures all of its filmstrip projectors with coated lenses to give maximum screen brilliance. The result is sharper definition and contrast, greatly increased illumination on the screen, increased color fidelity, and the elimination of light scattering and flare.

A new dual-speed record player, the model B-8 "Picturephone," is manufactured by O. J. McClure Talking Pictures, 1115 West Washington Boulevard, Chicago 7. This machine is portable, 33 pounds total weight, plays up to 16 inch records at 33⅓ or 78 revolutions-per-minute. It is equipped with an outlet for plugging in a filmstrip projector for those desiring to show sound slidefilms.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17, is making a special offer of one "Viewlex" filmstrip projector and \$30 worth of slidefilms for \$79.50. This new "Viewlex" projector is well worth examining.

# Book Reviews

**THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.** By Frank A. Butler. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. xii, 399.

This book has been well titled, for if the principles of teaching elaborated therein were to be used by all secondary school teachers, secondary education would move ahead by leaps and bounds. Lasting improvement would result.

Although this text has been designed for prospective teachers, it has much to offer experienced teachers. Its purpose is to develop an understanding of basic principles of teaching coupled with the practical means essential to the fulfillment of these principles. Following the development of a background for considering problems and conditions in secondary schools, attention is directed to the following principles: (1) The objectives should be most worth while; (2) Pupils learn through self-activity, but this activity should be psychologically sound; (3) Self-activity to be psychologically sound should be in fullest agreement with the type or types of learning involved in attaining the objectives; (4) Learning should be unitary, not fragmentary; (5) The energy of pupils should be released so that they apply themselves fully; (6) Teaching should provide for individual differences; (7) Teaching should be diagnostic and remedial; and (8) The physical and social environment for learning should be ideal.

Each of the foregoing principles is embedded and developed in a practical context. Many concrete illustrations are given in different subject matter fields. There are typical problems and situations of special interest to social studies teachers. It is Butler's conviction that teachers must understand teaching principles as they operate in learning situations. He states, "Learning to teach by learning to learn is excellent psychology" (p. vii). To implement this sound idea he presents many learning activities which the reader may do to develop a functional conception of teaching principles. The suggested activities are well chosen and should contribute much to the worth of the volume.

Another feature of this text is the manner in which specific suggestions essential to effective classroom presentation are cogently summarized. After building appropriate settings, essential facts and principles related to such topics as improv-

ing critical thinking, improving questioning, helping low-ability and high-ability groups, maintaining wholesome classroom conditions, securing good social behavior, and improving drill are set down in a succinct, summary form. These concise statements should prove helpful not only in planning and conducting learning experiences but also in evaluating various phases of classroom procedure.

The improvement of teaching in secondary schools is a challenging and ambitious task. Such an undertaking takes real courage, especially when launched single-handedly by a textbook writer. This text not only attacks the problems courageously but in addition sets forth, clearly and practically, fundamental considerations which will make the improvement of high school teaching a reality.

JOHN U. MICHAELIS

University of California

**THE MEETING OF EAST AND WEST. An Inquiry Concerning World Understanding.** By F. S. C. Northrop. New York: Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. xxii, 531. \$6.00.

Professor Northrop's book is the valiant and intelligent attempt of a professional philosopher to analyze and resolve the ideological conflicts of our time. Northrop subscribes to the thesis of UNESCO that wars begin in the minds of men. The world, to him, is divided into two conflicting ideological areas. These "two worlds" are not the democratic and communist camps of the political commentators. They are the East ("the Orient"), which in its view of life stresses what Northrop calls "the aesthetic component," the sense of "the undifferentiated aesthetic continuum," and the West, which emphasizes "the theoretic component," resulting from its Utopian drive and its scientific approach. Within each of these cultural worlds, Northrop finds internal conflict. In the West, it is conflict between the medieval and the modern elements in our heritage.

Northrop shrewdly illustrates this conflict in two opening chapters, one on the rich aesthetic and emotional culture of Mexico, the other on the "free" but aesthetically and religiously tepid culture of the United States. He proceeds to analyze other main subdivisions of Western cul-

ture—British democracy, German idealism, Russian communism, Roman Catholicism, and Greek science. His diagnosis of the West completed, he turns to "the Orient" and tries somewhat more briefly to uncover the essential ideological slant of the peoples of Asia. His conclusion, based on an ingenious and complex physio-psychological analysis, is that the differences between East and West and within each of those cultural areas are essentially complementary, not irreconcilable, and that properly understood and synthesized they give "scientifically grounded intellectual and emotional foundations for a partial world sovereignty."

On the way to this conclusion Northrop deliberately offers plenty of ground for argument. His comments on such diverse matters as American Protestantism, the "New Deal," the British Labor government and the new Aristotelianism at the University of Chicago will strike sparks in some quarters. In the field of Asiatic culture Northrop is obviously less at home. Followers of another and greater analyst of human development, Arnold Toynbee, will question Northrop's basic assumption that there is a single "Oriental" ideology or a single "Orient." However, in discussing Asiatic peoples, Northrop shows great shrewdness and sensitivity in grasping significant attitudes and contrasts to Western ideas.

One must presume that Northrop is writing not so much for his fellow philosophers as for the ordinary intelligent inhabitant of the world who wants to know whether and how he can also become a citizen of the world. Whether Northrop's desired audience will read his book is a question. He has been unable to shake off his professional jargon and too many pages are written in a technical style which only a philosopher or a physicist can love. Nevertheless, despite its obscuring style, the book is recommended reading for teachers of the social studies. Use it as a touchstone for your own education. If you cannot "follow" Northrop, then perhaps you are culpably ignorant of the intellectual content of our culture and in no condition to induct students into our cultural heritage and to help them to contribute to its growth. If the book is thick, it is also rich and provocative, and well worth the sort of careful reflective reading which it demands.

MERIBETH E. CAMERON

Milwaukee-Downer College

EUROPE IN MODERN TIMES. By Warren O. Ault. Boston: Heath, 1946. Pp. xvi, 859. \$5.00.

A prominent ecclesiastic remarked recently

that the age of historic liberalism is ending. If true—and there is abundant evidence to support it—the statement ought to be fully pondered by the generation who are about to step into the new age. For it is only through an understanding of what Europe has meant from the Renaissance to Serajevo that we can hope to create the counteracting historic denial of the eclipse of the liberal mind.

Professor Ault would seem to have been guided, to some extent at least, by some such consideration as the foregoing. He devotes about two thirds of his book to the period since 1775, and the century from 1775 to 1871—the true nineteenth century—he sets apart as a section called "Liberalism and Nationalism." By way of contrast, we recall that hardy and very excellent perennial, Carlton J. H. Hayes' *Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe*, wherein the word liberalism does not appear in the discussion of anything previous to 1815, and thereafter chiefly in a political sense or as representing anti-clerical tendencies. Ault associates the word with economics and with *laissez-faire* generally. He makes tentative essays into an even better treatment: witness his discussion of "Liberalism in German Culture" and similar passages here and there. But when will we get the history of modern Europe that dares to be frankly, in part, a history of the liberalism which is the human spirit blowing, like the wind, where it listeth, and which is the legacy of Europe to a world now standing on the margin of shadow?

To mention another feature of the organization of this volume: the last and largest section, covering the last seventy-five years, is very properly called "Democracy, Industrialism, Internationalism." This tends to correct a distorted view caused by the too close linking of democracy and nationalism as key words for the whole of the nineteenth century.

This book produces, in the mind of the present reviewer at least, a welcome suggestion that the war days are behind us. It would be inexcusable not to acknowledge the beautiful little preface, standing out from the usual cliché-burdened effort like a well-turned sonnet. It contains several brave utterances, of which we feel constrained to quote two: "A student should not be taught more than he can think about," and "in the study of our ancestors we need to concern ourselves not only with what matters to us but also, in some measure, with what mattered to them." Hear! Hear!

In the belief that, in spite of the excellence of the illustrations, maps, genealogical tables, refer-



ence reading lists, prologues to sections and chapters, and other features, our little remaining space can best be used in offering a few representative sentences from here and there in the volume; we submit the following.

"Thus the kingdom of Italy is the only nation in modern history to be united by the direct vote of the people themselves" (p. 446). One hundred per cent American papers please copy. "Is it too much to believe that on the eve of World War I parliamentary government in Germany was just around the corner?" (p. 520). "Stalin explains the Communist practice as follows: 'The party is part of the class, its vanguard section. Several parties and consequently freedom of parties can only exist in a society where antagonistic classes exist'" (p. 684).

From which it will be seen that Professor Ault knows how to provoke discussion. An exceptionally fine trait, in an exceptionally fine textbook.

DONALD C. BABCOCK

University of New Hampshire

THE FOLKTALE. By Stith Thompson. New York: Dryden, 1946. Pp. x, 510. \$6.00.

JONATHAN DRAWS THE LONG BOW. By Richard M. Dorson. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1946. Pp. ix, 274. \$3.50.

There has been increasing attention to the folklore of our country during the past three or four years. Mr. Botkin's *Treasury of American Folklore*, and his less known but equally valuable *Lay My Burden Down* have played their part in this growing recognition. So have the increasingly popular works of Mr. Lomax and his son. The folk song collections of the Library of Congress, and the recordings which are now offered for sale, have also had a share in developing this popular recognition. There have been evidences that social studies teachers have recognized the value of folklore, both as motivation and as a medium for developing critical thinking. Miss Wilkins' article on "Myths and the Social Studies" in the February, 1946, *Social Education*, and Miss Klee's discussion of "Folklore and Critical Thinking" in last October's issue, evidence different aspects of this recognition.

Dr. Thompson, Professor of English and of Folklore at Indiana University, is one of our foremost scholars in this area. He is an authority on the folklore of the entire world, and long years of research, of teaching, and of writing form the background for his present volume. Recogniz-

ing that the mass of materials collected during the past half-century is overwhelming to any but the specialist, he has attempted in this book to provide a guide to this material, both for the serious student of literature, anthropology, and psychology, and for the general reader who will "find interest in man's attempt to bring enjoyment to his leisure through the art of storytelling."

*The Folktale* is divided into four major parts. The first is really introductory, and is very brief. In it the author discusses the universality and the various forms of the folktale. He concludes that "Literary critics, anthropologists, historians, psychologists, and aestheticians are all needed if we are to hope to know why folktales are made, how they are invented, what art is used in their telling, how they grow and change and occasionally die." The second part is titled "The Folktale from Ireland to India." Observing that folktales "exist in time and space, and they are affected by the nature of the land where they are current, by the linguistic and social contacts of its people, and by the lapse of the years and their accompanying historic changes," the author has surveyed the entire field of folk literature. He has analyzed this literature as to type—the complex and the simple—and also as it was developed in ancient literature. One very interesting chapter shows the spread of European and Asiatic folktales to other continents. Part three is really a development of the second—a detailed study of the folktale as it developed in a primitive culture. For his field of operations the author has here chosen the North American Indian, an area in which he has long been an acknowledged leader.

For the social studies teacher interested in the use of the folktale as a teaching-learning medium, the fourth section is probably the most valuable. "Studying the Folktale" includes chapters on the theories of the folktale, the international organization of folktale study, collecting folktales, classifying folk narratives, the life history of a folktale, and the folktale as living art. In the chapter on collecting folktales, Dr. Thompson remarks that the entire development of knowledge in this area depends upon voluminous and trustworthy collection of native folktales. The bibliography and an index of tale types are both helpful and interesting. This is obviously not a book for the average high school student, but its use in colleges, or by teachers interested in working in this field, is recommended.

Dr. Dorson's book, an adaptation of his doctoral dissertation at Harvard, is a specialized

study of the development of the folktale in one area—New England. It is filled with examples of folk stories, and illustrations of their development, transition, and spread. It is noteworthy for two reasons, because the author has depended almost entirely on written sources, rather than attempting to collect verbal sources, and because very little has been done by way of collecting New England's folk tales. It should prove interesting and worth while for students down to the junior high school level.

In his first chapter, Professor Dorson discusses the long tradition of New England storytelling, and surveys the diffusion of tales, sometimes with only slight variation, through the New England states. He then devotes individual chapters to supernatural stories, Yankee yarns, tall tales, and local legends. His concluding chapter discusses literary folktales, and is developed from a study of the writings of John G. C. Brainard, John Greenleaf Whittier, Daniel P. Thompson, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Rowland E. Robinson, Holman F. Day, George S. Wasson, Robert P. Tristram Coffin, and Walter Hard.

Mr. Dorson's sources are varied, and would afford an alert teacher many opportunities for developing class discussions of historical criticism. For example, on page 167, the author analyzes the research methods of Cotton Mather. This would afford an excellent opening for a discussion of objectivity and rationalization. This volume is based on meticulous labor through a vast collection of old newspapers, literary weeklies long-since forgotten, almanacs, scrapbooks, and town histories. He has used the resources of a large number of libraries and historical societies. The result is a work as inclusive and thorough as it is interesting and valuable.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

Cortland (N.Y.) State Teachers College

ATLAS OF WORLD AFFAIRS. By C. H. MacFadden, H. M. Kendall, and G. F. Deasy. New York: Crowell, 1946. Pp. 179. \$2.75 (paper cover).

Without question the *Atlas of World Affairs* is a valuable contribution to social science materials both for the teacher and the student. In addition it has applicability to both secondary and collegiate levels of education. The emphasis throughout is implied by the title and it is extremely helpful to have in graphic form the large amount of current information which is given.

Throughout the atlas the maps are printed in blue on white and on many maps red overlay

gives additional information. The right half of each double-page spread is given to the maps, while the left half contains inset maps, graphs, charts, statistics, and prose description.

Coverage is generally good but of necessity runs to small-scale maps. There are 15 world maps, individual continent maps, and numerous regional, country, and sectional maps. Individual map content varies considerably; political and economic information is presented as well as geographical factors of terrain, waterways, population, and transportation. Several maps have a direct bearing upon World War II, such as those of Nazi invasions and retreats and Japanese military movements. Airline distances also appear on a goodly number of maps. The *Atlas of Current Affairs* would not replace the general atlas needed for teaching or studying the social studies, but it does give a great quantity of current material not to be found in the general atlas.

The text includes numerous inaccuracies and ambiguities, but even more disturbing are two omissions. For most of the statistics and charts no dates are given. Consequently it can not be known whether the data represents ten-year averages or single years, nor is it clear what specific years are covered. Secondly, sources of information do not appear. Both of these omissions are perhaps more serious in an atlas of current data than in the general or standard atlas.

R. L. TUTHILL

University of Kentucky

LATIN AMERICA: PAST AND PRESENT. By Russell H. Fitzgibbon and Flaud C. Wooton. Boston: Heath, 1946. Pp. 469. \$2.20.

Two professors of the University of California have combined sound scholarship with understanding of the needs of students to make this secondary school textbook one of the best studies of Latin America. Not even the committee of the American Council on Education, which probed into the shortcomings of teaching materials on Latin America and came up with a mighty volume of criticism in 1944, could find much to say against *Latin America, Past and Present*. There is evidence that the critique offered by the aforesaid committee was ever in the minds of Messrs. Fitzgibbon and Wooton as they assembled this meaty and wise book.

The framework of the study indicates the authors' intentions of avoiding repetition and overlapping by gathering materials under headings that cut across national boundaries and by

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emphasizing themes of common concern. An introductory chapter elucidates reasons for our interest in Latin America. Five main sections deal, respectively, with resources and characteristics of Latin American life, with historical background and political development, with ways of making a living and social problems, with current political affairs within Latin America and in its hemispheric and world relationships, and with the literary and artistic expressions of Latin American cultures. A final chapter suggests possible future developments. Synthesis and the effort to illuminate interrelationships mark the treatment throughout.

The book's distinctive contribution lies in its description of the living habits and personal problems, the thoughts and aspirations of the Latin Americans. The reader learns what foods they eat, what standards govern courtship and marriage, what clothes are worn, what sort of schooling the children have, what games they play, what diseases sap their vitality, what jobs they work at—in short, what life is really like. Large issues are not neglected but political history is simplified and subordinated. Occasionally there is high success in making the reader feel an identification with the people who sweat and strain, but who nevertheless face *mañana* with faith and hope.

Messrs. Fitzgibbon and Wooton are concerned to lift the curtain of popular misconceptions regarding Latin America. For instance, the notion that most of the people are lazy is set in the perspective of a diet and a prevalence of disease that would surely enervate even the chosen ones among a nation of Nordic supermen. The idea that Latin America lacks creative artistic power pales in the light of the account of their impressive achievements in literature,

music, and the arts. Revolutions are shown to mean something quite different from the meaning usually accorded the term in Anglo-American tradition. That democratic elements in Latin American countries have not always rejoiced at the Lend-Lease aid furnished during the war becomes understandable as note of its use to bolster local dictators is taken. One would look far to find a better book to set people straight in their thinking about our southern neighbors.

Another excellent feature is the discriminating character of opinions and judgments. The belief in Latin America's remarkable prospects for the future is tempered by the observation that generations will pass before the area comes into its own. Admiration for persons who have won universal respect—such as Toussaint and Bolivar—is at all times under control. Again, while a real sentiment of admiration for and sympathy with the struggle against destitution, ignorance, and disease is evoked, the authors have effectively eschewed sentimentality.

Whether students would share this high regard for *Latin America, Past and Present* is another question—the answer depending largely upon the skill with which the book might be used. The authors give valuable suggestions to teachers. There is a wealth of visual aids: maps, charts, and pictures. Techniques of narrative and dialogue enliven many pages. The bibliographies and activity suggestions are carefully organized. This reviewer thinks that both teachers and students would like this book.

As for shortcomings, conservative teachers would probably want more political history. Those who attach great importance to Latin America's struggle toward democracy would probably consider the treatment of the role of the Catholic Church as an ally of political reaction somewhat understated. Peron's friends and antagonists may resent the fact that he is neglected. The Roosevelt Corollary is unmentioned. Something, however, has to be left for the class to investigate and figure out.

PAUL W. COONS

Buckeley High School, Hartford, Conn.

●  
UNDERSTANDING THE RUSSIANS: A STUDY OF SOVIET LIFE AND CULTURE. Edited by Bernhard J. Stern and Samuel Smith. New York, Barnes and Noble, 1947. Pp. vi, 246.

The editors, in their introduction to this volume, state that their objective is to set forth "significant evidence for those who are sincerely



eager to learn the truth about the Soviet people." Contributors are said to be "people whose appraisals of the Soviet Union are widely respected." An examination of the contents reveals that of the fifty-two items in the anthology, only two have been especially prepared for this publication, and fifty have appeared elsewhere in print at an earlier date. Some of the material was written by American scholars and writers who are recognized as preeminent in their fields, and some of the publications in which the materials originally appeared are known as impartial, scientific, or scholarly. On the other hand, it is to be observed that a very substantial portion of the material consists of quotations from the Soviet Embassy *Bulletin*, from other Soviet authorities such as Messrs. Stalin and Molotov, from *Soviet Russia Today* or the *New Masses*, or from books published by International Publishers. In addition, there are selections from such professional "friends" of the U.S.S.R. as Hewlett Johnson, Beatrice Webb, and Harry F. Ward.

Now it is not the intent of the reviewer to imply that Soviet official sources, or sources representing consciously or unconsciously the official Soviet view, are without value in understanding the U.S.S.R. It is obvious that anyone who wishes to approach such understanding must subject himself to large quantities of material of this type, even to the point of reading the *Short History of the Communist Party (of Bolsheviks)*, which is something of a chore. It is important that significant public pronouncements of Soviet leaders, explanations offered by Soviet newspapers and journals, and articles by outstanding individuals in various fields in the U.S.S.R. be available for ready reference by the American reader who wishes to be well informed. They contain much information which is perfectly useful and correct, and they are at all times the source of our best knowledge of the Soviet Union. The point is that the evidence which they present must be subjected to critical evaluation by persons familiar with the general background, if it is to be meaningful in terms of Western values and concepts, and if it is to lead to any degree of understanding. Here we do not have a problem of what the official sources say, but one of ascertaining what they fail to cover; we also become involved immediately in the semantic aspects of the matter. Truth becomes difficult to recognize when opposing and mutually exclusive ideas are tagged with identical labels. We must always seek to discover what dictionary a writer uses when he describes the U.S.S.R. For example, note a



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selection from Alexander Kendrick, apparently the only reference to freedom of the press contained in the Stern and Smith volume:

So we come to the burning question of freedom of the press, about which I don't propose to say much except that freedom of the press in the Soviet Union gives to those who never had newspapers before the actual means of owning and printing them. Working people and their organizations are literally guaranteed printing presses and stocks of paper by the Soviet Constitution. The Soviet press is a controlled press, but it is controlled for the best interests of a majority of the Soviet people by their own organizations (p. 136).

Equally choice bits on Soviet "democracy" are to be found in the sections by Harry F. Ward and William Mandel.

The problem of getting along with the Soviet Union is a major preoccupation of Western statesmen and peoples. Obviously, better comprehension of Soviet life is needed, and thorough study of Soviet institutions and policies should be encouraged at all educational levels. Understanding comes through knowledge and critical analysis, and not through the acceptance of "favorable" and unrealistic views. The wishful thinking which characterizes many observers does grievous disservice to the cause of genuine understanding, and glib optimism such as that

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disseminated by the Webbs and the Hewlett Johnsons can lead only to sad disillusionment or to a state of continued delusion. Such uncritical acceptance of Soviet views also implies a lack of confidence in the moral values of Western civilization, which may deserve criticism, but which really stand up pretty well in a comparison with the mainsprings of Soviet society. A common error is the assumption that there is a real relationship between Western liberalism and the philosophy which governs the Soviet Union, and that it is therefore desirable for liberals to find some intellectual device for "approving" of the U.S.S.R. without letting their consciences bother them. True, this approach has lost quite a bit of its savour in the past two years, and has begun to give way to an attitude now quite popular but no more constructive, that of the Bullitts, Earles, Dallins, and Burnhams, whose fulminations point only to a solution which has nothing in common with understanding.

Messrs. Stern and Smith have rather carefully excluded the critical from their anthology. The selections from sources of good repute in terms of scholarship and impartiality are primarily descriptive, and usually deal with topics about which there is little violent dissent. Other topics are covered by Soviet official sources and the apologists, and the general impression derived from the volume as a whole is one to which a Soviet propagandist could find little objection. It may be noted that the material on science, art, music, literature, and education is distinctly more informative, and could be very useful. The appendices contain the text of the Soviet Constitution, statements on the budget and the five-year plan, and other source material which will prove of value. The volume should be a welcome addition to the libraries of schools which are in

a position to use such material properly. Some of the excerpts would make fine exercises in historical criticism.

WILLIS C. ARMSTRONG

Foreign Service Educational Foundation  
Washington, D.C.

THE SOCIOLOGY OF RURAL LIFE. (Revised Edition.) By T. Lynn Smith. New York: Harper, 1947. Pp. xxii, 634. \$4.00.

It is not long since all sociology tended to be urban sociology. The city furnished the most vivid and challenging sociological problems, and appeared to be the best sociological laboratory. Urban sociology textbooks abounded; even general sociology textbooks were largely urban-oriented. But all this is rapidly changing. Thanks to numerous individual scholars, including the regionalists, and to the Social Science Research Council, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and the experiment stations, the literature of rural sociology has been greatly extended, and its techniques and concepts refined.

This is one of the best of the several excellent textbooks that reflect this advance. Smith insists on applying to rural sociology the rigorous methods of science and the principles and concepts of scientific sociology. Adopting a cultural interpretation of rural life, he traces the influences of such cultural forms as the arrangement of the population on the land, the nature and distribution of property rights in land, the group bonds, the class and caste systems, and the basic social institutions; and maintains that cultural invention and diffusion are effecting increasing homogeneity in urban and rural society.

The book is divided into three major parts. Rural population is studied as to numbers, origin, distribution, composition, health, physical and psychological characteristics, fertility, mortality, and migration. Rural social organization is analyzed, first, as it is affected by the form of land settlement, tenure, and landholdings, and, second, as it is expressed in groups, classes and castes, and the institutions of family, education, religion, and government. Social processes—competition, conflict, cooperation, accommodation, assimilation, acculturation, mobility—are reviewed as theoretical concepts and applied to farmers' cooperatives, town-country conflict, competition between trade centers, and Negro-white relations.

Those who wish a relatively full treatment of the community as a specific rural entity will not find it in this book, but the emphasis on the

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sociological processes is greater than in any other rural sociology textbook. Smith contends also that any adequate study of rural sociology must deal extensively with the South. This region is the most rural part of the nation, contains the bulk of the rural population, retains much of its rural cultural heritage, is the source of many urban migrants, and epitomizes many of our most serious national problems. While this viewpoint is a desirable antidote to the idea that the corn-belt farmer is typical of American agriculture, it would be easy to overdo it. Many teachers will wish to supplement the book with more intensive study of their own and other regions.

The book contains excellent charts, recent Census data, study questions, a forty-one page bibliography for specialists, and a short selected bibliography for small schools.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College

**AMERICA: ITS HISTORY AND PEOPLE.** By Harold Underwood Faulkner and Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper, 1947. 4th ed. Pp. xvi, 949. Maps, charts, graphs, and diagrams. \$4.00.

Students and teachers alike will be favorably impressed with the modernization in typography

and format of the latest edition of this high school textbook which was also used by the United States Armed Forces Institute during the war. Ted Miller has done the maps entirely in black and white. Pictograms have been replaced by graphs of the conventional variety. Cartoons have quite commonly been enlarged but are not indexed.

To the superficial reader it might seem that the 1942 and 1947 editions are quite similar in content except for the addition of a chapter entitled "America and the Second World War" and the lengthening of two other chapters. As a matter of fact considerable attention has been given to a simplification of the vocabulary, which has proved beyond the grasp of many students. Examples may be noted by comparing the treatment of such topics as nullification (1947 edition, p. 213; 1942 edition, p. 207) and resumption of specie payments (1947 edition, p. 497; 1942 edition, p. 482). Possibly the process has gone too far when the name of Monroe is eliminated from the account of the negotiations for Louisiana (p. 652). On the other hand, many passages are still too difficult, e. g., the discussion of contraband and neutral goods (p. 664). Other improvements along this line include the reduc-



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tion in the length of paragraphs and the revision of the educational equipment. There is also some reflection of new interpretations advanced in recent historical monographs.

The unit type of organization, so frowned upon by many historians, has not only been retained but mentioned as a feature in the preface. In this connection it seems necessary to comment upon an unfavorable review of this book which appeared some months ago in the *Chicago Sun*. College instructors are justified when they object to the teaching of high school history in a vacuum or the using of books which are "deadly," regardless of their own shortcomings in these respects. But it seems extraordinary to intimate that Messrs. Faulkner and Kepner are in the category of those who turn out "pot-boilers" and that their books will be adopted "just as long as politicians run our schools." Professor Faulkner's college textbooks have enjoyed a wide usage which must be attributed largely to the fact that they have been found satisfactory by fellow historians. Classroom teachers in Chicago high schools perhaps are abused, but elsewhere they at least enjoy a considerable degree of freedom in the choice of textbooks. This reviewer feels that the merits of *America: Its History and People* are quite sufficient to account for the popularity which it has attained.

MAX P. ALLEN

Northern Michigan College of Education  
Marquette, Michigan

**CAREER OPPORTUNITIES.** By Mark Morris (Ed.).  
Washington: Progress Press, 1946. Pp. ix, 354.  
\$3.25.

As the Publisher's Note states, this volume "devotes itself primarily to those fields which (1) have substantial post-war possibilities, (2) constitute an integral part of the nation's economy, (3) offer

special advantages to veterans. Also included are some unusual opportunities about which curiosity has been increased of late. The major purpose of each occupation brief is to provide the reader with practical up-to-date, and highly authoritative information. . . . For all practical purposes, the contents of the book represent the best thinking and the most reliable knowledge of Uncle Sam's occupational specialists in the Agriculture Department, Labor Department, National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, Navy Department, and the War Department."

The following major fields are covered: Industry, Business, Agriculture, Engineering, Physical Sciences, Natural Sciences, Medical Sciences, Social Sciences, Modern Arts, Education, Religion, and Miscellaneous.

Under each of the major fields are from three to sixteen occupational divisions. Each division describes briefly important phases of each occupation; for instance, under "The Job of the Civil Engineer," the following subtopics are found: What do civil engineers do? How do you qualify as a civil engineer? Who should or should not take up civil engineering? Where do civil engineers work, what do they earn, and what is the outlook? Where can you prepare for civil engineering and what subjects do you take? Where can you find out more about civil engineering and related education? What jobs are related to civil engineering?

A very good feature of the book is the information it contains on where additional authentic data may be obtained concerning each occupation. High school and college counselors, as well as those who counsel veterans, need a handy reference on the fields of occupation, and *Career Opportunities* fills such a need. It is a valuable addition to the reference shelf of any counselor.

GLENN F. VARNER

St. Paul, Minn., Public Schools

**DISCOVERY OF EUROPE; THE STORY OF AMERICAN EXPERIENCE IN THE OLD WORLD.** Edited by Philip Rahv. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1946. Pp. xix, 743. \$5.00.

In the October, 1946, issue of *Social Education*, Professor Chester McA. Destler discussed "The Emergence of the United States as a Major Center of Culture, 1880-1900." Dr. Destler pointed out that "Within two decades after Charles Darwin, Herbert Spencer, Henry Maine, Matthew Arnold, and Sir Henry Bessamer had clinched,

seemingly, British cultural ascendancy on the American shore of the Atlantic, the United States had risen not only to the status of a world power but also to the stature of a major center of culture, contributing in ever-larger measure to the complex civilization of the contemporary world." In the April, 1947, issue Professor Michael Kraus explored some American influences on European life and thought in an article titled "America Fulfills an Eighteenth-Century Prophecy."

These two important articles are indicative of a new interest in the influence of America upon the rest of the world and of the reactions of American travellers to what they have seen. The book that Mr. Rahv has edited is an important entrance into this new area. It opens with a letter written by Benjamin Franklin in 1772 and closes with an excerpt from a book printed just before the outbreak of World War II. In between are selections from diaries, letters, journals, and books written by Americans who travelled in Europe.

Mr. Rahv is a literary man, and most of his selections are from the writings of literary figures, rather than from the opinions or reactions of politicians, businessmen, social leaders, or careful students of European life. He tells us that in selecting "the contents of this book I have proceeded more with an eye to the subject of the experience than to its object. American descriptions of Old-World scenes are often engrossing in their own right, but what is really of value in them is the attitude of the given author, his subjective response, the turns and twists of his imagination when forced to cope with the challenge of the great European world."

This book can be useful, in many ways, to the teacher of either American or World history. Students, even down to the junior high school level, will find many of the selections fascinating. It will help them to understand such persons as Franklin, Jefferson, John and Abigail Adams, Washington Irving, Henry Adams, Hawthorne, Melville, Emerson, and James Fennimore Cooper. The use of this volume can do much to help explain the development of an American consciousness, and the interplay of world-wide forces.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

Cortland (N.Y.) State Teachers College

### Publications Received

American Economic Association. *American Economic Review*, XXXVII:2, May, 1947. Evanston, Ill.: American Economic Association, 1947. Pp. x, 781. \$1.50.

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